

SOCIAL EDUCATION

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Eight Year Study – Progressive Education Association

Introduction

S. P. McCUTCHEN

BACK in 1933, a group of thirty secondary schools undertook an interesting study. On the assumption that college entrance requirements were a restrictive force, making it difficult and at times impossible for schools to give each student the program which was best for him, these schools sought to show that secondary education could be improved if college entrance restrictions were removed. To this end the Progressive Education Association authorized the establishment of the Commission on the Relation of School and College. This commission sought the consent of colleges and universities to a plan whereby the graduates of a small number of selected secondary schools would be freed from college entrance requirements. The terms of the agreement applied to the graduating classes of 1936 to 1940, inclusive, and most of the selected schools began making curricular changes in their tenth grade programs in 1933, so that the study covers a span of eight years. Most of the colleges agreed to accept students from these schools on the basis of the principal's recommenda-

tion and whatever records concerning the student the school might submit.

The Commission, faced with the choice between selecting the educational direction which all of the schools should take, on the one hand, and of permitting each school to determine the direction, extent, and degree of curricular change which it should undertake, on the other, chose the latter course. One of the fundamental bases of the Eight Year Study, then, has been the complete autonomy of each school within it, and no program of evaluation, no plan of uniform records, no assistance of the curriculum staff has been forced on any of the schools not desiring to use it. Decisions as to what shall be taught, how it shall be taught, and how the results are to be evaluated and recorded have been made by each school's staff.

The schools were selected to include a wide geographic range—they are scattered from Los Angeles to Boston—and as many different sizes and types of schools as possible. Hence, with autonomy as a basic principle and variety emphasized in the selection, the programs of the thirty schools illustrate many types of curricula. This is as true in the social studies as in any other field. Obviously a course of study suitable for a small school for girls in New York City would be neither theoretically desirable nor practically feasible for a large public high school in Altoona.

Dr McCutchen of the Evaluation Staff of the Progressive Education Association's Eight Year Study, who has served as special editor for the part of this issue concerned with social studies teaching in seven of the co-operating schools, takes over the Editor's Page in introducing the seven statements that follow.

THE educational plannings which have occurred in the thirty schools not only show diversity, but they demonstrate

growth. If one should read the description of their new work which many of the schools prepared in 1933 and should follow that by visits to these schools today, in many cases there would be found few recognizable similarities. Perhaps this only proves that teachers know better what they do not want than what they do. Maybe it demonstrates the difficulty of thinking in new patterns. But again it may be that teachers working together, having taken one step, can then see the next step, and the next, and that they prefer not to take too great risks with their students until they have convinced themselves that the new procedure is a sound one. It is expected and hoped that these programs will remain dynamic, changing and improving as teachers see their way ahead more clearly. Such an expectation entails this warning: any description of any of these curricula or of parts of them must be regarded as a cross-sectional view, accurate as to yesterday or today, perhaps, but not necessarily holding true for tomorrow.

The articles for which this presentation serves as a preface attempt to show some of the range of social studies programs in these thirty schools. Necessarily, within the space available, it has not been possible to describe the programs of all of the schools, or all of the social studies curriculum of any one school. The contributions which follow have been selected because they are typical of certain lines of thinking, trends if you will, in the thirty schools. These trends as described below are generalizations made by this writer. It may be that no single school's program could serve as the illustration of one of the types described, or again the program of some school is not adequately described by any or all of the trends mentioned. Generalizing lends itself easily to these difficulties.

THE first trend to be noted is the continued presence of courses organized chronologically. Pupils begin their study in September at an earlier date and proceed sequentially to June and a later date. In

its usual form, this type of organization needs no description. Those who require further details are referred to their own high school education in history. Under this broad heading, however, several modifications may be found. In some cases, for example, literature courses are bound to the chariot wheels of history, and the classics of an era are read at the same time that the history of the period is studied. There is a tendency, too, to break away from the old politico-military history and study how the people of the past really lived. This tendency might be even stronger if our knowledge of the actual mores and folkways of the past should ever percolate down to our textbook compilers. Then, as one of the accompanying articles points out, some schools, within a framework of chronology, bridge the gap between the past and the present very frequently, relating the history studied as quickly as possible to the contemporary problem of which it is the background. This shuttling between "then" and "now" can be carried to the point where one can no longer designate the course as chronological in organization.

ANOTHER type of organization, somewhat similar to the chronological but different enough to warrant separate listing, may be christened comparison and contrast of cultures. Two civilizations are chosen which usually represent different periods of chronology as well as different culture patterns, such as Periclean Greece and colonial America, or modern American city life and Homeric Greece. Sometimes, however, the two patterns may fall within the same time period, as modern Great Britain and Japan, or present-day Russia and China. Within the two or more culture patterns selected, basic social processes are sought, and usually the study involves the esthetic, scientific, and eutenic aspects of living as well as the economic, social, and political. In some schools such a course becomes quite a pretentious edifice, requiring an intricate schedule, drawing in

several different teachers, and necessitating a great deal of coordinating to see that the different elements of content fit into a well rounded pattern.

CLOSELY akin to the comparison and contrast of cultures course is the study of a cultural epoch. The twelfth century, the renaissance, the age of Louis XIV, Elizabethan England, or some such locale and time will be chosen for intensive study for the year. As in the previously described type, many aspects of life are studied, and, while the social studies may furnish the outline of the course and contribute largely to filling it in, other subject fields usually are brought into the picture. The extent to which each field is used naturally depends on the versatility, adaptability, and cooperativeness of the teachers concerned, for if the skeleton of vested interest or of the intrinsic importance of a subject rears its ugly skull at the intellectual feast, a worse Donnybrook could scarcely be imagined. Social studies teachers have often made the naive assumption that teachers of other subjects would recognize the central place which social studies should have in this sort of course and in others seeking to fuse content. The result has been the development of beautiful Jehovah complexes by the social studies teachers, and envy and jealousy on the part of other teachers, who have frequently taken practical means to deflate the social studies, even though educational advance might be halted while they did so.

ALTHOUGH no school among these thirty has swung its social studies program exclusively to the problems approach, the use of this type of organization is growing rapidly. Most of the schools use it on at least one grade level, and a few use it in the offerings of both the junior and senior years. Narrowly conceived, the problems course might be called simply a topical treatment in which certain of the most important contemporary issues or persistent

problems are selected, studied first in their present-day setting and then usually explored for their historical background. In most cases the unit or problem is summarized by a fresh view of the contemporary phases of the issue in the light of the pertinent history which forms its background. Sometimes problems are chosen for which the pertinent history can be drawn largely from ancient and medieval settings; usually, however, this method requires a study of far more modern European and American history than that of earlier times.

This approach can be called topical when the treatment is narrative or expository, when the topics or problems are selected before the course is taught and when the order in which they will be studied is fixed in advance. Such a course can more truly be called a problems approach when students are guided through a fairly definite process of scientific thinking, or problem solving: when they are required to define and describe problems significant to themselves, when they consider the various feasible courses of action, when they collect and interpret the pertinent data, historical as well as contemporary, when they reach tentative decisions based on the available information, and when they act, where action is possible, in accordance with the intellectual decision reached.

Adherence to such a process requires an initial focus on those aspects of living which are crucial to adolescents. It means that neither teachers nor textbooks can be permitted to select or phrase the problems; students must be guided to see immediately the relations between the present and its pertinent past. They must be required to reach tentative decisions. And finally—here lies the hardest task—opportunities for doing something about these tentative decisions must be discovered. By and large our educational institutions have been perfectly content with academic sterility; the artificial environment which is the secondary school may have to be recast fundamentally and a new relationship with the

community established, if this sort of social studies course, or any other, is to become really effective.

THE functional core program, the last type to be described, really grows out of the thinking outlined above. Problems which are of real importance to adolescents do not always fall narrowly within the social studies field—in fact they seldom do. They are really the concern of most or all of the teaching staff. Schools that are endeavoring to make their materials and their teaching focus on these problems are faced with the same administrative difficulties to be found where the cultural epoch or the comparison and contrast of civilizations approach is used: the task of bringing in subject matter specialists when their contributions are pertinent. But the cultural epoch approach and its companion lend themselves to pre-scheduling; it can be determined in advance when the science of the renaissance will be taught, and the science teacher can busy himself elsewhere until that time. In the functional core program this is seldom possible, and either several teachers must be assigned full time to this course, or one teacher must assume full responsibility with whatever help he can draw from previously prepared source units, from conferences with other teachers and from occasional work of other teachers with the class.

IF these five kinds of organizations, achieved as synthetic generalizations, set out some of the differences in the social

studies programs of the eight year study, it may be desirable briefly to list some of the points of agreement. In all of the schools, sincere efforts are made to make the student the center of planning, and not mechanically to fit the student to the curriculum. In all of the schools, whatever the departmental philosophy, the justification of history is found not in itself, but in its value in explaining the present. These trends are growing in the schools: subject matter lines are being broken down, and teachers of different subjects are learning to cooperate with each other; students are participating more largely in planning the programs, both in the selection of units, topics, or problems, and in the organization of them after they are selected; teachers are departing from their utter dependence on an adopted text and are seeking to list persistent problems or areas of human activity which will serve as guides for a selection of content justifiable for their particular section, their particular school, and their own students.

If these trends and these programs "ooze orthodoxy" as one critic put it, constructive criticism requires that the stone-thrower give his own answer. In your particular school, with your particular students and their particular parents, what sort of social studies program would you offer, if, following the precedent of this experiment, the colleges removed requirements of specified units for entrance and entrance examinations? Secondary education will move forward to the extent that intelligent answers to this question are found.

Eight Year Study

DENVER PROGRAM

East High School

THEODORE D. RICE

MORE than a decade ago social studies teachers in Denver launched a program of cautious experimentation designed to improve and to make more secure the position of the social studies in the curriculum of the school. With the passing of the years teachers have become increasingly dissatisfied with changes related only to the subject matter of the social studies. Many teachers have now come to feel that they must in the future be concerned less about what happens to the social studies and more about what the whole school program means to American youth. This article is a description of this change in point of view as witnessed by the writer.

When the Eight Year Study was inaugurated in Denver the social studies program was made up of one year of world history, one year of American history, and electives in psychology, world relations, economics, and American problems. True, there had been a good deal of experimentation in this field, but most of it was confined to an attempt to find ways to make the history courses vital to the students. In many classes teachers and students made their approach to history through contemporary events. Some teachers used this approach as a point of departure for a systematic chronological study of various periods of world and American history. For example, news of the persecution of Jews in Germany was used to motivate the study of the history of the Hebrews in early Palestine, and the question of the repeal of the Eighteenth Amendment was used as the basis for the study of the Constitution and of the constitutional period. Other teachers made this approach

a constant procedure, placing the emphasis on contemporary problems and concerning themselves only in a limited way with the chronological development of historical incidents. In the classes of these teachers the persecution of the Jews in Germany was studied from the point of view of a minority race in a maladjusted nation in the process of political and economic change. The repeal of the Eighteenth Amendment was studied as one of the many problems in modern American life that call for a study of the place of the Constitution as a flexible instrument subject to interpretation, in contrast to its place as a document establishing relatively unchallenged and unquestioned standards. Systematic chronological treatment was used in this instance as an overview and as a means of summarizing. In both approaches current affairs were emphasized to a greater extent than when they were reserved for a once-a-week discussion.

In another experiment American history and American literature were correlated. In this a teacher of English and a teacher of social studies cooperated, using as text material James Truslow Adams' *Epic of America* with supplementary references.

These examples will serve to illustrate the status of experimentation in the social studies when the core program in the Eight Year Study was introduced. Little attention had been paid to the evaluation of objectives other than those relating to facts, knowledges, and skills. The social studies teacher considered himself, first, a teacher of social studies disciplines and, next, a counselor or adviser to his students.

Problems of the contemporary world were used primarily to lure inquiring minds backward to historical origins and interpretations. Little concern was shown for the students' ability to adjust themselves to personal problems. The marking system of that time called for grades in class work and a record of attendance. With the exception of a few unusual teachers, no one was concerned with the relation between the students' school work and his extracurricular activities, or his vocational ambitions. In one school of two thousand pupils the counseling and guidance program was assigned to twelve teachers, two for each semester grade level. These teachers were given an extra period a day for this work but had little time to do more than to attend to clerical matters and investigate the records of failing students.

THE Eight Year Study was inaugurated by providing for the correlation of English and the social studies. Two teachers, one from each of these departments, were usually assigned to a class for the three senior high school years—to act as counselors as well as to develop a core program.

The purpose of the core program, as then conceived, was to help the student meet the problems of his daily living. The fact that these problems do not necessarily fall within the area of English and social studies was no deterrent to the acceptance of this purpose. It was argued instead that, since the objectives of the English and social studies programs were closely related and since they included much material on the field of human relations, they provided the natural soil for a core program. This belief was accentuated by the emphasis being placed on the social studies at that time because of the depression and of other disturbing social factors. Many social studies teachers were conscious of the fact that they and their subject were given a position of dominance that was not for the best interest of the total program of the school, or even of the social studies.

THE attempt to correlate the two fields presents many difficulties. Although there has been much objection to such an arrangement, many values have been recognized. The two fields have enough common purposes so that the two teachers involved can successfully correlate much of their work. In many instances teachers have actually succeeded in helping students to meet problems of everyday living. Again, much of the work of the social studies has been greatly improved by the literary contributions and human interest materials contributed from the courses in English. By learning to plan together and to add to each other's work from their own backgrounds, teachers have found the vitality of their work increased. It is of course true that other subjects might have received similar enrichment through correlation.

In the case of those elements of English and social studies courses that can not be correlated, the two teachers have carried on their work independently. One of the most perplexing problems is the time element. Both courses handled independently have been so crowded that it has required all of the time available to cover the material. Put the two together, and encourage the teachers to widen their programs and to help students to meet important personal problems, and the result is an impossible crowding of already overcrowded fields. As a result the teachers concerned find themselves trying to ride two horses. Because of their training, if for no other reason, they wish to continue to do a good job in teaching the social studies and English. At the same time they try to act as guidance counselors and to aid their pupils to study problems of personal health, family relations, consumer economics, and all those other things which are important to all students but not identified with the work of any one department of the school.

AS the teachers responsible for the core work struggle to carry the increased burden, they realize that some things must

be dropped. Should social studies teachers cease to concern themselves solely with the academic social studies disciplines and turn their attention to the creation of a core curriculum focused on the problems of daily living in contemporary society? If they do not, will a core program take on the characteristics of a purely personal adjustment course, or will it also contribute to significant social objectives?

The social studies teachers in core work feel that such problems as have been referred to—personal health, family relations, recreation, and the like—are not at present adequately treated anywhere in the secondary school. They can not justify, from a functional point of view, a retreat from grappling with everyday problems of living and helping youngsters to dig into the social implications of choices and trends in these problems. At the time many social studies teachers have grave doubts as to the possibility of the development of a systematic treatment of any of the social studies in a core course.

Again the social studies teachers often find that they are not adequately prepared to deal with many of the life problems of children in the senior high school. They are becoming more conscious of the fact that the core is concerned with organic and integrated problems and that these problems call for understandings and abilities beyond the training of most teachers of social studies or, for that matter, of any other single subject.

THE problem of what to retain as social studies and what to incorporate in the core program is common to other departments of the school. To aid in clarifying the situation the staffs of the secondary schools in Denver have tentatively accepted the following definitions for the classification of the various courses that contribute to the senior high school curriculum.

Core course. The core course constitutes that part of the total school curriculum in which an endeavor is made to assist all

pupils in meeting those needs which are most common to them and to society without regard to any subject matter classification.

Special interest courses. Special interest courses include those courses which are frankly intended to meet the special needs, interests, and abilities of particular pupils.

Fields courses. In some schools it may seem desirable to include an intermediate classification of fields courses that are more generalized in nature than special interest courses. Such courses are often referred to as survey courses. They may serve as a means of transition from the core course to special interest courses, although that would not always be necessary.

WHILE it is obvious that the social studies have much to contribute to the core course, perhaps as much as any other single department, the social studies teachers are in the forefront of those who are agreed that the core course is not to be made up of a collection of social studies courses. They feel that the work in the core program will draw so richly upon certain historical and social materials that there may be no need to offer some of the present social studies courses as separate subjects of study. This would perhaps be the case with American history and American problems. There are other cases where they feel that social studies subjects should be continued as special interest courses.

Since it is true that most problems in the core curriculum cut across departmental divisions, interdepartmental groups are working together on this curriculum. Social studies teachers are cooperating in these committees with members of other departments in the development of extensive source unit outlines which can be used by teachers of core classes.

Some of the units for which outlines are being prepared are:

Entering a New School

Joining organizations

Making oneself personally attractive

Broadening interests and experiences
Participating actively in group activities

Family Relations

Making the home physically attractive
Making personal adjustment to others in the family
Using the family income
Providing recreation in the home
Determining standards and values
Understanding the social significance of family life

Communication

Selecting radio programs
Recognizing qualified authority in press, movies, and radio
Discerning propaganda

These source units are comprehensive, but teachers are not expected to follow them as they would a rigid course of study. The units provide, instead, suggestions of definite procedures and resources to which the students and teachers may turn for help as they deal with the problems at hand. They are constructed with suggestions for tests, and for exercises in evaluation. While they draw from many fields of experience, the contribution of the social studies teacher in all of them is self-evident. For instance the unit on family living is being built by cooperative thinking on the part of teachers of the social studies, English, art, home economics, industrial art, science, and music. The social studies teacher, in this group, is responsible for contributing suggestions which will help students to recognize the social significance of home and family life. He rightly feels responsible for contributions that will aid the pupil to understand and appreciate the differences of family culture and standards, and to recognize the social implications of the trends in size of families, place and kind of residence, and the relation between occupation and standards. He does not on the other hand feel himself obligated to suggest, except for purposes of content, materials dealing primarily with the history of family life in remote periods, or with people of a decidedly different cultural

background from that with which the student will probably come in contact.

Concurrently with his task of developing core curricular materials is the social studies teacher's problem of redefining his own field of specialization—a field that during the past eight years has been subject to much discussion and study.

THIS is too early to do anything more than to suggest what may result from the reorganization, for what is placed in the core work will have an important part in determining what is to be provided on an elective basis. An illustration of what may happen can, however, be given. One Denver high school now has a required social studies program of five semesters—one semester for a general orientation course, two semesters for the study of the American heritage and modern American life, and two semesters for modern European history and contemporary world problems. These are supplemented by an elective course of one semester in ancient civilizations, and by other courses for which teachers and students may feel a need.

As the core course is developed into a comprehensive three-year program, this social studies program might be condensed to include the following: an elective field course of two semesters on American traditions to be worked out through a correlation of American literature and American history; elective, special interest courses in world history, problems of the Pacific, comparative government, state history, psychology, economics, and sociology. Some question may be raised concerning the time in the high school schedule for such elective courses. The schools in Denver are large enough to offer them. Many such courses would not require five periods a week, but could be given on a two- or three-period basis. This is conceivable in the high school, if the counseling is adequate to help students to determine their special interests.

The most common factor with which the

social studies teachers are concerned is the underlying philosophy or the purpose which both the core course and the social studies program seem to be promoting. One group of social studies teachers is studying ideas of democracy and attempting to relate the whole school program, as they come in contact with it, to these ideas. They believe that throughout the core program there should be implied a basic philosophy of democracy as a way of life. They also believe that the theme of the entire social studies program should be the development of democratic living. While the social studies teachers concede that they are not solely responsible for determining the educational philosophy of the schools, they believe they should share in shaping that philosophy.

BY way of summary, social studies teachers of Denver are becoming convinced that the core program is broader than that of

the social studies as social studies teachers have conceived it. They believe that they have two vital contributions to make to core courses—one to see that the use of historical and social materials is truly functional and the other to help build a core program that will contribute significantly to the understanding and practice of democratic living. The social studies teachers believe that, parallel to the core program, there should be set up, as electives, special interest courses to meet the particular interests and needs of a limited number of pupils. They are in no position to define finally the content of a core course or to say that they know what the social studies program of the future will be. They are sure, however, that unless, as social studies teachers, they participate in drawing up a core program and study their own purposes and offerings carefully, they are not giving the kind of leadership that they claim to be their responsibility.

Eight Year Study

FRANCIS W. PARKER PROGRAM

Chicago

HAZEL CORNELL

TO understand the social studies experiment at the Francis W. Parker School, it is necessary to consider it from three points of view: first, the background that the school itself furnished for the experiment; second, the ideas that determined what form the experiment should take; and third, the curriculum that has been evolved as a result of these controlling factors.

First, the background. The Francis W. Parker School has been a coeducational laboratory school since its foundation in 1901. It has a pupil body, at present, of about four hundred students, ranging from the kindergarten through the twelfth grade.

The personnel of the grade groups does not change materially from year to year, since most of the lower school students move on into the high school. With this permanent character, it is possible for the teachers in any given year to depend upon the fact that most of the pupils have had a previous sequence of varied and vital educational experiences. The student body is socially fairly representative of Chicago life. No kind of pressure from the outside is brought to bear upon the school—it is independent of any sort of political domination. No curriculum is imposed from above. Each teacher contributes the best his scholarship

and training permit him to give to the creation of a curriculum. The school is ridden by no one method of teaching, for it believes the teacher and not the method to be the greatest single factor in successful education, and the teacher is free to teach whatever seems to him to be the truth. There is one requirement, however, made of all who teach within the school. It is that they believe in the democratic way of life.

For the experiment, then, the school furnished as the background an inheritance of experimentation, a student body small enough to form classes in which each individual could have a daily working part and varied enough in mentality and social grouping to form a fair cross section of Chicago life, a parent body cooperative and intelligent, and a faculty free to formulate its own curriculum and free to teach in whatever manner seemed most efficient.

THE second point to be considered is the ideas that determined the form the experiment should take. When the school undertook the experiment, the faculty decided to proceed slowly in this matter of creating a new upper school curriculum. It was thought best not to discard without reason and consideration and to build on all the good that was already in the school. Hence there was to be no sudden attempt to do away with subject matter fields, since the faculty was made up of teachers who were specialists in their particular field and who had their only formal training in that field. And it was they who were going to have to carry the experiment.

Rather than eliminate subject matter fields, the school decided to use the procedure of specialist cooperation. As a faculty it would plan around a conference table, using compromise whenever necessary, in order to attain a common goal of what was best for the adolescent student. The weakest field of study in the high school was that of the social studies. Hence it was here that the most fundamental changes would have to take place. Certain beliefs guided the

faculty in the changes to be made. It was believed that every student should have as rich and functional a training in social studies as he had in his English language and in his physical health. There could not be political health in a democracy until every member was educated to some understanding of his responsibility. Social studies, as well as English and physical training, were therefore to be required of every student from the seventh grade through the twelfth, and each would receive from this training whatever his abilities and capacities would permit him to take. There should be no separation of pupils into an experimental and non-experimental group. Every one should take part in the new work, and the students should progress, by grades, into the new curriculum—that is, the experiment would begin in the ninth grade, and, when that group moved into the tenth grade, it would take up the second step in the experiment and so on. Not until the experiment was four years old would the entire high school be operating under the new curriculum.

Another controlling idea was that there should be a planned curriculum in the social studies, set up in advance but with sufficient flexibility to meet the needs of the individual students and of the rapidly changing life of the community. This curriculum should be so built that each succeeding year would use, in some way, the experiences of the preceding years. Thus there would come a breadth and depth in thinking and in action which would make for the students' greater security. Only with a planned curriculum, moreover, could there come increasingly stimulating experiences. The types of work done under this curriculum each year must be those suited to the adolescents' interest and maturity; but at the same time most of the work must be functional, so that it would serve the pupils' needs when they became adult citizens. Moreover, the students themselves must help to modify this pre-arranged curriculum by criticism and suggestion,

for they were to be taken into consultation throughout the experiment.

A third controlling idea was that complex social-political-economic problems should not be undertaken by the student until his maturity and preparation were sufficient for him to grasp, intellectually, the most important of the complicated causes of the problem. It was felt that study of such problems without enough background and preparation produced a superficiality in thought and a reliance upon emotion as a deciding factor, which were most undesirable results of social studies work. It was thought by the school that present American and international life is so complex that to try to teach it to students without maturity and a carefully prepared background of thought is undertaking an impossibility. Moreover, if this study were to be undertaken before the student was ready, there would be created within him a kind of indifference toward the problem, rather than the deep, ever increasing interest which social studies teaching wishes to foster.

The important ideas, then, which controlled the experiment were: subject matter fields would not be broken down; cooperative planning by specialists would be the basis for procedure; in the social studies field the curriculum would be planned with the aid of the students; the student experiences would be functional; and no complex problems would be studied intensively by the student until he was prepared for the venture.

THE third point to be considered here is the social studies curriculum that has been evolved as a result of these controlling factors. I shall try to sketch it in its large outlines only. The plan covers six years of required work, from the seventh grade through the twelfth. This work may be pictured as falling into two divisions: the seventh, eighth, and ninth grade sequence and the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grade sequence.

The seventh, eighth, and ninth grades study world history up to the World War. Three years are given to this study so that the experiences may be as diversified and significant as possible. There are various reasons why this world history has been selected. The adolescent of these years is awakening to a kind of social consciousness and to a self-analysis. He wants to know where he came from, who is God, what is right and wrong, what is a social group, and how have things come to be what they are. Many of his questions can be answered in this sequential story of human society. Prehistoric man's development, the mighty civilization of ancient Egypt with its social and political organization, and the Greek emphasis on beauty and freedom all seem to furnish answers to so many of the seventh-graders' personal problems that this study may be one hopeful possibility for the young adolescent. The eighth-graders find a strange satisfaction in the study of ancient China and of Roman civilization. The ninth grade then completes the sequence by the rise of nations in Europe after the downfall of Roman civilization. Three lines of thought are followed in this ninth grade: the development of nationalism in England, France, Germany, and Italy; the growth of democratic procedures in England and France; and the revolutions that have so profoundly affected modern ways of living and thinking—the "Protestant revolt," "intellectual revolution," the "industrial revolution," and two of the political revolutions, French and Latin-American. While the student is immersed in this past, he is not being shut out of the present, for at no time in this study is the thought of the past separated completely from the present. The present, in a simple way and insofar as the student understands it from his own experience or reading—and, I suppose it must be admitted, insofar as the experience and the abilities of the teachers make it possible—is used to illustrate and make clear this past. There is a reality in all of it for him.

THERE is a second reason why this world history has been chosen. Time and intensive scholarship have made clear this story of the past; important issues and forces stand out in bold relief. Its study is a simple problem when compared with that of this modern society in the midst of which one is living, and in which perspective is not present to help separate the real from the false forces. It takes very careful thought and study to plow one's way through the disturbed conditions of the present. For this reason United States history with its modern problems is a most difficult field of study. Newspapers and magazines which must be used in large part by the student as source material for these modern problems are so filled with propaganda that unless one is trained to detect its earmarks—and even if one is—one gets lost in the maze of contradictions. Newspaper analyses and propaganda analyses are necessary for the social studies student and must precede the use of newspapers as source material, but this analytical work must come when the student is mature enough to understand it. He is not mature enough in the junior high school grades.

THERE is another advantage in having world history precede the modern problems study. It furnishes the sequential background of factual material without which it is very difficult for many pupils to understand the present. If a student has been working for three years in world history, by the time he is ready for the tenth grade there is an at-homeness in his mind as regards the world in general. He understands something of this world in which he lives in its big outlines. He is mentally free to turn wherever he desires for further work in man's development without being lost in a foggy sea of time and place. A certain degree of mental security has come to him, because a kind of unity in man's relationships has begun to be dimly visible to him. He can be helped to arrive at this consciousness of unity by a sort of correlated

work in the closely related fields of literature, music, and art. However, in the ninth grade in the Francis W. Parker there has been no attempt at exact time correlation of these subjects with the social studies, but through bimonthly meetings of all teachers working in the closely related fields each teacher discovers where he can help the other departments, and how they can help him. Each teacher thus becomes familiar with the work of all the other related fields and the teacher group operates as a unit. This procedure is not that of a core-subject control, because the social studies is not a core-subject. Rather it is a procedure by which a group of experienced teachers pool the related ideas of their special fields for the sake of the development of the child. Cooperation and compromise are its key-notes.

Against this rounded world background the student is now ready to place the complicated and complex modern problems. He is now mature enough and experienced enough in handling historical material of a simpler kind to grasp some of the basic forces at work. It has been thought better to emphasize one aspect of the problems each year, so the tenth-grade study revolves about modern political problems, the eleventh-grade about modern economic problems, and the twelfth-grade about modern international problems.

The tenth grade makes its first real study of the philosophy underlying political democracy. This is followed by the application of democratic procedure in the city of Chicago, with the study of the present question of city manager versus mayor and council government. At this point Chicago newspapers are analyzed, and propaganda is studied. The work on democracy then spreads out to the federal government with the historical background of our present system—and its strengths and weaknesses. The statements of Mussolini and Hitler that democracy has passed its usefulness and that fascism is the inevitable sequence of

events in Europe makes quite necessary for the American student as careful a comparative study of dictatorships and democracy as he can make. So the last part of the tenth year is occupied with a study of fascist philosophy and its political workings in Italy and Germany, and of communistic philosophy with its application in Russia.

The eleventh year builds upon this political background the study of some of the difficult economic problems: taxation, money and banking, capital and labor, wages and living standards, housing, economic planning and increasing control of business by the federal government. As many of these problems as can be are studied under the fascist and communist systems also, particularly wages and living standards, capital and labor, housing, and economic planning. A final comparison is made with Sweden's middle way as developed under its cooperatives.

The twelfth year banks upon this understanding of the political and economic background for a study of the forces at work in international relations. In this year 1937 it is inevitable that the work should begin with war as the most intense, terrible, extreme, and present method in international relations. It is equally inevitable that the World War and its consequences should be studied carefully as a factor in the present situation. From all this study can be deduced the possible causes of war, human nature, propaganda, munitions makers, noble impulses, nationalism and imperialism; and each of these can be studied in detail. The second part of the year may be spent in a study of our country's foreign relations, the forces at work in shaping these policies, and the American attitude toward the organizations that claim to aim at better international relations, the Red Cross, League of Nations, World Court, Pan American Union.

Time does not permit an explanation of the very valuable help given this whole plan by the English, art, music, and psychology departments during these three

years—work that approaches modern society and the individual student from a variety of points of view. Nor does it permit a description of the library training which the students have throughout their six years, and the use they make of their own school library, between ten and eleven thousand volumes, and of the Newberry, Crerar, and Chicago Public Library. So too must be omitted any explanation of the excursions that are a part of the social studies work—visits to the juvenile court, city council, steel mills, housing projects, Chicago Commons and Hull House, and the legislature at Springfield; so too must be omitted the description of how the tenth grade, this fall, had its social studies class at the Chicago Council on Foreign Relations, where it heard Mr Koo present the case for China.

Several details, however, of the general work must have more than a passing notice. The school is one of three schools connected with the Graduate Teachers Training College of Winnetka. To this college have come students from various foreign countries. These adult students have sat down with the social studies groups at the Francis Parker School and talked over this question of international relations. A very fine attitude has been created by these intimate conferences. The other detail is the rather careful study made by some of the groups of the Negro problems in Chicago. At this time a trained Negro sociologist helps the students to see the problems from the Negro point of view. A last mention should be made of the use of the talking movies on human relations; these are being tried this year for the first time in senior English and social studies classes.

THROUGHOUT the six years of the social studies work the school has tried to help the students to acquire a scientific approach to the understanding of social problems, a recognition of the fact that human beings the world over are more alike than they are different, and a base of accurate factual material drawn from all

kinds of sources which may be used in making conclusions and forming judgments.

The school does not believe that its present curriculum in the social studies is the only possible one for the secondary school; but it does believe that through some such study adolescent students must find sufficient security and understanding to help

them in their difficult years ahead. These years are going to demand of young people a full use of all their knowledge, their tolerance, and their vision. It is the inescapable responsibility of social studies training to see that knowledge, tolerance, and vision are strengthened in all who come under its care.

Eight Year Study

FRIENDS' CENTRAL PROGRAM

Overbrook, Pennsylvania

J. FOLWELL SCULL AND ROBERT J. CADIGAN

SCHOOL PHILOSOPHY

THE statement of any school philosophy is usually elastic enough to be stretched in several directions to meet varying interpretations and purposes. Nevertheless, when the Friends' Central School adopted as its major objective the meeting of the needs of the individual so that he would participate effectively in our democratic society, for most of us that statement meant that, whatever we taught or failed to teach, our first responsibility was to develop in students an awareness of society's needs and, also, both the desire and the ability to serve those needs. This central purpose was derived from the increasingly apparent need of preserving the best principles of American democracy and the traditions of the Society of Friends. Historically, Quakers have been pioneers in furthering social justice, in working for peace, and in championing the cause of minority groups. If a Friends' school was to be Quaker, in fact as well as name, the guidepost for the future was plainly visible.

SUPPORTING OBJECTIVES

ONE of the criteria for testing the effectiveness of a school objective is whether it guides the formation of curric-

ulum content and methods. Before the present "enterprise" course, we attempted—only in part successfully—to correlate history and English. History was presented chronologically from the ancient period to the present. During the sophomore and junior years students followed the development of civilization from ancient Egypt to the seventeenth century, and during the senior year the emphasis was on America. In such circumstances the problem of relating enough interesting literature at the proper time was almost insurmountable. Tenth-grade students neither enjoyed nor understood Greek drama. The Elizabethan period offered a good deal of literature that merited a longer period of class time than the social studies department thought it warranted as an historical setting. Should the history teacher stop until the English teacher had covered his material, or should he direct the class on a tangent? Either way defeated the purposes of close correlation and was particularly confusing to the students. We became convinced that in such a situation our more intangible and yet most important objectives, that is the development of social sensitivity and active participation in our society, were not being realized. Rather than give them up we de-

cided to create a course of study focusing on these most important aims. To that end then the teachers of social studies and English attempted to construct an integrated course in the twelfth grade. Supporting objectives for the course were needed, objectives that should be both the limbs and the roots of the trunk of the tree, our central school purpose.

These we stated briefly. First, we set ourselves to try to teach our students to understand the growth of some human institutions as forces contributing to our changing civilization. Second, we undertook to develop an understanding and appreciation of such fundamental principles of American democracy as: the integrity and worth of the individual and of minority groups, the effective social participation in common social interests, the reliance on peaceful rather than violent methods of settling differences, the implications of majority rule, an awareness of and sensitivity to the needs of society, and the finding of practical means of serving those needs. The third objective was to enable students to discover and pursue individual interests. The fourth was concerned with developing the necessary skills and habits in the general fields of reading, thinking, and expression, with emphasis on creative work whenever the opportunity arose. In connection with the last objective we also aimed to develop the perception of beauty as well as logical reasoning, interpretation of data and application of principles.

SELECTION OF UNITS

THE next step was the selection and construction of units of work to provide the means of accomplishing our ends. In addition to an orientation unit in which students examined our objectives in the light of their own future purposes, we chose three issues that have been in the past and are in the present affecting the bloodstream of American life: war and peace, standards of living, and minority groups.

TYPICAL UNIT

AN examination of one of these units, that on war and peace, the study of which we have recently completed, will serve to illustrate the kind of work planned for the others. The specific purpose of the unit is derived from and underlies the objectives stated above, and it was our aim to understand the problem of war as a moulding force in a changing civilization, its causes, its consequences, and the means of its prevention.

It is part of our plan that each unit be motivated. The desire of students to study problems of war and ways of working for peace was already apparent. Newspapers, newsreels, and radio were bringing the subject dramatically to the fore. It was dinner table conversation in every home.

To supplement these forces and to see how the problem related to personal human relations, the class turned to literature. "What Price Glory?" was studied, both as a powerful modern drama and as a revelation of what happens to men in the trenches. Students also read and discussed short stories concerning others of America's wars: Rose Terry's "Sally Parson's Duty," Evelyn Scott's "The Substitute," Stephen Crane's "The Price of the Harness," and William March's "Nine Prisoners." This reading, which was specifically required, was augmented by individual selection from a bibliography of poetry, drama, novels, short stories, biographies, and essays that dealt with some phase of America's relation to war. To complete the introductory phase of the unit, the class was shown an excerpt from the film "Cavalcade," showing the effect of war on an English woman whose husband and son had enlisted. After the showing of the film a free discussion was held, and stenographic notes were taken of each student's remarks. A study of these notes indicated the kinds of student interest and the needs for further facts.

Investigation of the causes of specific wars

and the writing of short research papers followed. Of the many phases of war's consequences, social, biological, cultural, political, et cetera, students chose one and prepared oral talks showing their relation to either the Civil War or the World War. Most of the time was spent in studying the various suggested solutions for the problem, the attempts at cooperative action between the nations, the foreign policy of the United States, and, to bring us nearer home, the responsibility of the individual in war and in peace.

It was in this last aspect that the most significant work of the study was accomplished. Students corresponded with representatives of organized peace movements to obtain relevant data, had personal interviews with individuals in their community who have influence on the question, organized a committee to keep the class informed throughout the year of the possibilities for constructive peace action, prepared a program of short talks and readings that was presented at an assembly program, obtained appointments from the Philadelphia Speakers' Bureau on International Affairs to address other school audiences, conducted a panel discussion at a nearby Friends' Meeting, obtained the services of Major General Smedley Butler to address the school. Altogether sixteen senior students presented their appeal for peace before about twenty-seven hundred youngsters and adults. Nothing they did will solve the problem. The significant thing is that they did do something, perhaps participating in an attempt to meet a common social problem more effectively and intensively as adolescents than do most educated adults. If by this and other similar experiences that will accompany studies of housing, settlement work, and racial minority problems, they can develop the habit of applying knowledge and social ideals to actual practice, perhaps it may be true that when they are adults they will not accept frustration of reformative impulses as readily as do their elders.

USE OF MOVIES

MOTION picture excerpts edited by the Commission on Human Relations of the Progressive Education Association are used throughout the year in three different ways, at the beginning of a study to motivate an interest in a problem, in the midst of a study to provide a visual reference to some issue already raised, at the conclusion of a study to serve as a springboard into a discussion that acts as a synthesis of the unit. A selection from "The Devil Is a Sissy," for example, showing the problem of juvenile delinquency in a congested tenement area might be seen and discussed at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end, of our unit on standards of living. These films are designed primarily to promote a better understanding of human behavior.

SPECIAL INTERESTS AND FREE READING

WE needed a definite plan in order to attain those objectives concerned with individual interests and with reading, thinking, and expression. To begin with, each student selects some phase of each subject studied, about which he desires to know more. There is also time devoted to free reading and creative writing that is not prescribed in any respect. The criticism is often made of a course such as ours that it leaves no opportunity for students to study literature unrelated to social problems. Is it wise, people ask, to neglect Emily Dickinson, just because she does not happen to correlate with social problems? The answer is, of course, no. But we must remember that Emily Dickinson and others similar are truly meaningful to only a few at the adolescent age level. Those few have the opportunity of selecting her poems or those of any other writer for their free reading. In many cases it is suggested to students that they follow a reading program distinctly different from the major emphasis of the class study. The most important means we use to carry forward these aims

is the senior paper, prepared during the second semester. The subject, method of presentation, and organization are matters of individual choice. Part of the students may do some minor research. Others may write plays or stories. They are encouraged to select topics of particular interest to themselves.

EVALUATION

OBVIOUSLY we had to devise some means of evaluating our own program. This was not easy, for most of our better tests are designed for more conventional courses of study. We are fortunate in being able to cooperate with the Evaluation Staff of the Commission on the Relation of School and College for the purpose of creat-

ing new ways of measuring. It seemed advisable to give tests both at the beginning and at the end of the year in order to ascertain whether or not progress had been made. Tests are used for logical reasoning, interpretation of data, application of principles, attitudes on war, nationalism, and liberalism or conservatism. It will be noted that all of these are closely affiliated with the objectives of the course. Naturally the work of the students during the year offers opportunity for teacher judgment of the usual type, which is of course subjective in nature. Students also record their attitude toward their work in diary notebooks. A study of these diaries shows that they are much more than a reflection of individual students. They are witnesses to the teachers' achievements and failures.

Eight Year Study

JOHN BURROUGHS PROGRAM

Clayton, St Louis County, Missouri

G. H. V. MELONE

THE social studies have a vital part to play in the education of boys and girls. They can be made a most important contributor to the education of young people. The point of emphasis is not what the pupil can do to the social studies, but rather what social studies can do to and for a pupil. The distinction, I think, is important.

It is not a new idea to expect social studies to contribute to better citizenship. That civics teacher of seventy-five years ago who made his pupils memorize the entire Constitution of the United States did so on the ground that he was making better citizens of the young men under his tutelage. In theory we have subscribed to this citizenship function of social studies; in practice we have taught historical, geographical,

or economic ideas for their own sakes; and we have even recorded achievement in terms of the mastery of the ideas, rather than in terms of citizenship development.

Citizenship is, of course, a very elastic term. By expansion it may even be thought to include the socialization of an individual. Perhaps by a freer use of the term it could be made synonymous with education. The assumption that social studies can play an important role in the education of young people necessitates an analysis of this role into the specific ways in which education can be promoted.

In our country we are committed to education in a democratic setting. Whether this will continue permanently, or whether it should continue, is beside the point. The

fact is that Americans in general do give allegiance to the principals of democracy. Our problem is to determine what education means in terms of democratic living, and how, through the social studies, we can contribute to a better understanding and practice of that democratic living.

AT the John Burroughs School we are interested in exploring the possibilities of our school experience for training young people to take their part in this kind of living. When we concern ourselves with general work habits, we do so because these good work habits contribute not only to success in the mastery of specific material, but because industry is a desirable objective in education. We believe that it is good civic training for a young person to be taught to use his time effectively, to work independently, to persist in the face of a difficult task, and to work with accuracy.

We believe also that in these days democratic living requires an increased capacity to deal with social materials. There is a vocabulary needed—an exact vocabulary that will heighten the understanding of social issues. A citizen must know how to obtain accurate information. He must know how to evaluate the mass of information that comes to him, in terms not only of its accuracy but its completeness and its relevancy to an issue under discussion. It is necessary that the ability be developed to select usable materials and build them together into a thoughtful and systematic organization. It is also important that the conclusions drawn shall be sound, logical conclusions, and that, surrounded as we are by an atmosphere of generalization, much of it frankly unsound, the new citizen shall become aware of the importance of critical-mindedness. In other words, the emphasis that we are trying to place in our school upon the type of thinking that takes place in dealing with social materials, we believe to be founded upon a definite need of a citizen in modern life.

We are also concerned with the tech-

niques of the effective expression of ideas, particularly in the realm of informal discussion. The ability to make use of discussion as a means of obtaining information and clarifying ideas, rather than just for practice in argumentation, is, we believe, a desirable goal of social studies instruction.

We are particularly concerned, too, that our social studies program shall contribute to the development of the social maturity of the young people under our instruction. As we analyze this maturity we see the growth in three general directions: (1) the ability to participate in group action; (2) an increased sensitivity to or awareness of some of the maladjustments in our social organization; and (3) an emotional maturity which will enable a person to make judgments without passion or prejudice.

A REVIEW of these purposes of instruction indicates that we are stating our goals in terms of significant aspects of development. They include the capacity to deal with social data, the habits of work that make for effectiveness in civic life, and the kind of thinking that is needed to guide intelligent action. They also include the ability to take one's part in cooperating with others, an awareness of the unsolved problems in our social living, and a real feeling of concern for the improvement of the social organization.

SETTING out to achieve these goals we devote one year of our program to an introduction to the social, political, and economic pattern of American life, planned with a view, first, to developing the vocabulary and techniques needed to carry on the study of society, second, to see the scope of this pattern of American life and the nature of the difficulties that require solution, and then to see and accept the role of a citizen in the improvement of our social life. One year is devoted to a study of the foundations of our world culture, with emphasis upon the basic drives of the desire for security and the desire for expression that have mo-

tivated people in all areas and in various ages of time. Another year is given to the problems involved in establishing and improving a world society. The fourth year is devoted to the problems involved in perpetuating democracy in American life.

We are concerned that the program does not stop with the mere mastery of subject matter content. We want the program to result in intelligent points of view and, where possible, in direct action. In order to achieve direct action we are trying to make use of our school as an opportunity for practising the principles of democratic living.

In the John Burroughs School the pupils cooperate in the government of the school. In this government the social studies plays an important role. Sometimes it is an unfortunate role, for there have been occasions when the ideas learned in the social studies classes have returned like a boomerang to cause considerable annoyance. In our assemblies filibustering has gone on, a technique which the pupils learned in our classes. On one occasion we had a stuffing of the ballot boxes, and we discovered that the original impulse came from the study of books prepared by one of the very well known and widely used authors in our field. We had, too, for a while the numbering of ballots in our school elections, but, after considerable discussion of the matter in our social studies classes, this numbering system was discarded as undemocratic, so that in our school, if not in Missouri, we have free and untrammelled voting.

One of the most nearly unique features of our program is the work that the social studies classes do in connection with the school elections. When election time comes around, the pertinent issues of the school are discussed with thoroughness in the classes. Finally a platform is drawn up, but it is a platform of a new kind. Instead of a series of statements, it is a series of issues. In the days preceding the primaries and the final elections each candidate is furnished with a list of these issues. Then in the meetings that correspond to town meetings, any

candidate is interrogated as to his views or proposals concerning the various issues. Unlike an actual political campaign, where a candidate can plead a previous engagement, these student candidates are present and can not escape the searching inquiry of the various students. The result of this procedure is that the elections are taken with the utmost seriousness, and the highest honor that can come to a pupil in our school is to be chosen to be the leader of this governmental activity.

WE have tried in another way to make our school life become a vital activity in the life of the community. Our dramatic programs have been used not only as a means of expression and training for the benefit of the pupils of the school, but these productions have been taken out into the community to certain groups otherwise denied such entertainment. This has proved to be a significant experience for the groups visited, and a very useful experience for our pupils.

WE have also tried to make our study of social conditions so functional that it would lead to doing something about the social situation. It is a very simple matter for us to collect a large number of Thanksgiving or Christmas baskets from the pupils of our school. We have questioned, however, the educational value of this experience for our pupils, and the social workers doubt, I think, the effectiveness of this approach to the problem of the economically handicapped. Instead one group of the girls, with the assistance of organized agencies, planned a program in which there would be a direct contact of personality, and a real sacrifice of time and effort. It was decided to provide a recreational program for girls in our city who had no such opportunities. Our campus, gymnasium, and other facilities were made available and on two Saturday mornings each month thirty fourteen-year-old girls were entertained by our senior girls. For many of the visiting

girls a trip of several miles was a rarity. Their experience was so limited that one or two trips to downtown St Louis in a year to do window-shopping was the most that their financial condition would permit. For this group our girls provided a recreational program and a luncheon afterwards, and, as occasions, the meetings were happy ones. For the visitors the experience was delightful. The sheer fun of the recreation was enjoyed, and some immediate changes were noted. There was increased personal and clothing cleanliness, and an almost immediate copying of the dressing of the hair that our girls practiced. Eventually, in the summer that followed, the start made by this organization led to the establishment of a girls' club for recreational purposes, which the welfare agencies kept going. In many respects the program has been eminently successful.

THERE is, however, another side to the picture. It had been hoped that this direct contact in a constructive way would lead to a real concern on the part of these girls in our school for the maladjustments of community life. It was expected that through this experience our girls would have an interpretation of the needs of the community so that many would be willing to assume the role of leadership in social work. In reality all this was not accomplished. There were many difficulties encountered, one of the most important being that the economic gap between the two groups was so great that the John Burroughs girls had neither the maturity nor the imagination to bridge it. In spite of the difficulty, however, we believe it is possible with better preparation and some different con-

ditions to carry through this type of experience so that it becomes not merely a functional expression of social ideas and ideals but also an important process in developing attitudes and sensitivity to some of our great social problems.

IT is apparent that an emphasis in instruction which is based upon developing significant aspects of behavior requires a different technique in the recording of achievement. A letter or a percentage grade is inadequate for indicating achievement that contains so many unaverageable factors. We are attempting to describe the achievement in terms of the nature of the achievement, rather than in terms of comparisons with other pupils or with standards that are uncertain. We are trying to record the achievement in terms of the extent to which the pupil has attained the objectives of the course, and these objectives are the changes in behavior and attitudes to be brought about. The data for such an evaluation are collected in many ways; some of them are objective, and some subjective; but in any case the evaluation is made on the basis of the specific observations or interpretations of the behavior of the boy or girl.

We are hopeful that our course is set in the right direction, and that, through the emphasis we are placing upon the development of more effective citizenship habits as the purpose of instruction, we can make use of as much as possible in the great field of social studies to help at least a few St Louis boys and girls to be more concerned about the social environment in which they live, and better equipped to play their roles in making their community a really fine place for all who live within it.

Eight Year Study

NEW TRIER PROGRAM

Winnetka, Illinois

LAURA F. ULLRICK

AT least two aspects impress one who examines even superficially the report of the curricula developed by the thirty schools engaged in the Eight Year Study. One is the extreme variety of the programs proposed, and the other the prominent place given to the social studies. It is, naturally, the prominent place given to the social studies that especially aroused my own interest in the Eight Year Study, for I believe we social studies teachers have never before had such an opportunity to establish these subjects in the position we believe they should have, and, if with this opportunity they do not achieve this position, it will be because the social studies teachers have failed.

As the New Trier Township High School is a large school of approximately twenty-five hundred students, the administration of the school decided that it was not practical to establish an experimental program in the entire school. Since a number of efforts had already been made before 1933 to devise special courses for students of poor reading ability or of low mental ability, when the Eight Year Study was adopted in 1933 the administration proposed that it should be developed to improve the curriculum for the students in the upper half of the student body. Obviously this makes quite a different problem from that of the school in which the entire student body is given the same program.

On the basis of recommendations from the eighth grade ninety members of the incoming freshman class were selected to compose this new group within the school. This practice was followed for the next three years, but we found that our groups were

not very homogeneous, since students did not always continue to do the same grade of work in the high school that they did in the grammar school. Beginning with the fourth year, therefore, we adopted a new method of selecting students. This was to set up enough classes in the freshman year to take care of all those incoming freshmen whose recommendations from the grade schools placed them in the upper quarter of the class. During the last two years this has given us five sections of about thirty each. At the end of the freshman year, we ourselves eliminate from this group those who do not seem to be equal to doing a high type of work. We also add to this group any others whose high school records for the first year seem to warrant the change.

THE first point to be decided in making definite plans was the amount of time to be allotted to the various subject matter fields. This was decided by a vote of the heads of the various departments of the school. It was agreed that the core of this course was to be a four-year program of English and social studies. After that was decided, it became the problem of the social studies department to formulate a plan for their part of this four-year core.

We first tried to decide what we wanted to accomplish. Here another condition that greatly influenced our plan for a curriculum began to operate. This is that practically all of these students are going to college. We believed that, faced with the problem of a four-year course supposed to be a preparation for probable further work in college, we ought to plan differently from what we should if our students were very probably

not going on any further than their high school course. We always ask our critics to keep this point in mind. In other words, we do not maintain that the course we are working out as our experiment is the course that should be given in all schools to all students. I do think we should not even recommend it for all of the students of our own high school. So, according to the circumstances under which we were working, we decided we had at least a double purpose. One was to prepare the student for his duties of citizenship, which is considered a very important phase of social studies work and centers around the realization of responsibilities and the acquisition of understandings. The second was to make use of the opportunity to give the students a background for further study in the social studies, for greater appreciation of literature, art, and music—indeed a background for almost everything, for we believe that a knowledge of history can be useful in almost every situation.

WITH this idea in mind we committed what is an unpardonable sin in some minds today—we decided to propose a chronological survey of history, or development of civilization, to occupy the social studies time of these students during the first two years of their course. We wish, however, to stipulate that every one should understand that our use of the same words that were used twenty years ago does not imply that we are teaching history in the same way it was taught twenty years ago. We still believe that there is a value to chronology, that a time sense or sensitivity is quite essential to an intelligent use of the data of history. However "chronology" does not mean learning long lists of dates; very few exact dates are asked for, but we do believe that a time sense is valuable for the real appreciation of the progressive development of the different phases of civilization and for the understanding of our world.

This survey of the development of civilization includes an integrated art and music

program conducted by teachers from these respective departments. These teachers have a time schedule of the work presented by the social studies teacher. Each of these teachers meets each group once every two weeks and develops the history of art and music to keep pace with the development of the other phases of civilization presented by the social studies teachers. We feel that quite an unusual program has been developed in this respect for these first two years.

On this point of chronology, we have had rather hard going at times, and I believe that in the minds of many we are not experimenting at all. We still believe that in the end the pendulum will swing back in our favor. One of the first signs of this came this year with the publication of a new American history by one of the leading publishers, for which they have made one of their chief talking points, the possession of a chronological outline. They state that the use of the unit system of presentation has seemed to destroy time understandings and that a need for such a chart has become apparent. We believe this was bound to follow as a result of the complete disregard of the time element. While many have thrown out everything they were doing and started fresh, we have followed the practice of gradual change from what we had.

WHEN it came to the second year, we had the problem of combining with the course in English. This was made necessary by the demand on the part of our student group for an opportunity to study foreign languages to the extent of at least one language and in some cases two. Some students also wished to continue their study of mathematics and science to a greater extent than the curriculum provided. Here, too, we began to feel the pressure of what we knew our graduates would be required to take in their first year of college. For this we had to prepare whether we liked the course or not, for, if they failed to be successful in college, their high school would be blamed.

Therefore, in order to give the students more time for other subjects, we tried the experiment of having the same teacher teach both the English and the social studies in a single period. We believe this has been one of the most successful new things which we have tried, and up to date we are very well satisfied with the results.

The history covered in the second year is from the time of the reformation through the World War. The English classics read have been those given in the regular course, namely *The Idylls of the King* by Tennyson, one of Shakespeare's plays, *Silas Marner* by George Eliot, and *The Tale of Two Cities* by Dickens. The reading of these books has been fitted into the historical setting in the course. This has given the opportunity for the close correlation of literature and the social studies. This ought to work, for appreciation of literature is usually enhanced by the knowledge of the historical background, and reality is given to history by the literature. In addition to the reading there was introduced certain definite studies in composition. There is a tendency to change the required reading, to modernize it more. However, it does not seem to be very essential *what* is read, as long as the object of creating greater appreciation of good literature is achieved.

THE junior year was left the same in content as that of non-experimental groups—a year of American history. This year of history is required by state law, so that it can not be modified very much. However here we tried the experiment of teaching the course without textbooks. So far it seems to be working out very satisfactorily. The colonial period of our history is reviewed very briefly, for it is brought into the work of the sophomore year. We have prepared our own syllabus on the unit basis. During this year's study we find time to introduce a good deal of information concerning current events and to discuss and compare from various points of view world events and, especially, domestic problems.

THE fourth year of the social studies is devoted to the period since the World War on a world basis. It is in reality a course in current problems. We use magazines and newspaper material, and use all of the methods suggested for this sort of a course—committee method, panel discussions, etc. This is only the second year for the presentation of this course, so it is not entirely grown up yet. We are hoping to tie it up with public speaking and with a study of the local community.

WHETHER our course accomplishes what we claim for it is, I suppose, the question that will necessarily be asked. We think it ought to if it does not, but I really do not feel in a position to give an answer to this question as yet, for we have graduated just one group that has had the entire four years. We have found some dissatisfaction on the part of some of the students. A very few of them think they do not like the social studies and that they have to take too much of it. We rather suspect that this would happen in any course that we might devise. We believe it is rather a problem of getting a popular acceptance of the importance of the social studies. A great many students do not enjoy all phases of the study of English, yet it is so generally accepted as "the thing" to study for four years in high school that, while they grumble, they do not definitely rebel. English has come to be considered a tool subject, and one necessary for every American to master. If we could get the same idea established as to the social studies, then its position would be secure.

We expect to seek opportunities to get the ideas of the graduates from this course, at the time they finish their college and university work, as to the usefulness of this plan. So far there is one from whom we have heard. She found at the end of her third year that she could enter the University of Chicago without spending more time in high school. In the general course in the humanities required by the University of all

freshmen students, this student found that the work she had had at New Trier was of great assistance to her. I ought to say at this point that this student was one of those who did not like to take so much social studies, but now in her sophomore year at the University she says that she is glad she had to take it both in high school and college, as

it made her acquainted with so many ideas which she never would have recognized but for this requirement. We also expect to learn something from the study of the records of graduates in college. At present we have no real test of the success of our plan from the standpoint of its usefulness to those who have participated in it.

Eight Year Study

TULSA PROGRAM

Central High School

ESTHER LARSON

TEACHERS, of course, know only too well that it has always been more comfortable to be orthodox in their instruction, and that they have been more secure when controversial materials and procedures have been evaded in the classroom. Usually educators have been among the first to feel that experimentation in their field, as elsewhere, is an inefficient and wasteful method and that much of it must needs be boondoggling. Thus, comfortable and secure at the traditional task, instructors have set up a "vested interest" in their chosen subject and have maintained a "status quo" in the classroom.

To those of us in the Eight Year Study, however, the traditional way is no longer either comfortable or secure. I fear the time is long since passed when the old way of doing things can be maintained intact without producing some kind of revolt, for to block reform in any field of activity is to build up pressure that not only wrecks old institutions but fails to forge new ones. Now, if that is true, the schools of today really do have a "rendezvous with destiny," and the classroom should be the first to sense its new role as proving ground and workshop in the new order of things. This is no easy task and many teachers faced with

the dilemma become either totally frustrated or thoroughly frightened into doing something about it.

A year ago two hundred sophomores in the Eight Year Study were enrolled with me for their course in American history. Since one year of American history is required by state law in Oklahoma, it was understood that this group was to take the regular work in history required of all students in the tenth grade. To this arrangement the progressive groups objected, for they had come to feel, and in some instances with justification, that they were more advanced than the regular students, and, therefore, it would be no challenge for them to do the regular work. This situation appeared to be easy to solve, for there are some advanced workbooks in American history on the market, and, since the group is in the main a college preparatory section, a very good workbook was procured in the hope that the adjustment would be made. However these students did not want chronological history. They wanted present problems. The past seemed to have no value that they could be made to see. Naturally, the temptation was to consult them no further about the matter, for after all the course was a state requirement, and they might just as well be made

to do the job. But that was precisely what they would not do.

SINCE I could not adjust them to my former way of teaching, I thought that it was necessary for me to adjust the course to meet their needs. Not being sure of any set procedure to follow I asked for time to attend the Progressive Education Association convention then meeting in St Louis. It occurred to me that other teachers must be facing similar problems, and I was to learn that they were. At a panel discussion in St Louis a learned doctor from a teachers college spoke his mind in the following vein: "The teacher should not know beforehand what the students are going to discuss during the class period for then he will invariably interfere with their thinking." Naturally, this statement did not go unchallenged, and one could not help being reminded of the pertinent remark that "all reform must have a lunatic fringe." Many teachers went away from this meeting with the feeling that they had been challenged to do their job better than ever before lest the radicals "upset the apple cart"; but nevertheless the way to accomplish this improvement was not any clearer. Other meetings were more moderate, and one American history professor from a state university pointed the way when he called attention to the fact that almost every problem of importance in the field of American history is a recurring one.

HERE, then, was a cue around which to plan a new course. Listing as many as possible of the recurring problems in American history and classifying them under general headings or unit topics proved an easy task. Building units around present problems has been more difficult, but the students have profited by this method. They do not have at their command as many miscellaneous facts as former students, but they do have a real understanding of the problems covered, and they now see the use and feel the need of historical back-

ground materials to clarify their thought. Their attitude is changed, and, in the main, they like history. Some of them, of course, do not, but it seems to me that they are usually the ones whose parents before them disliked history and that they have cherished this prejudice since it was instilled "at father's knee."

The semester course includes the following units:

AMERICA, TODAY AND YESTERDAY (1830-1937)

- I. Democracy Engages in Social Reform
- II. Democracy Engages in Social Conflict
- III. Economic Revolution Overtakes Democracy
- IV. Democracy Establishes a World Power
- V. Reforming Democracy: The Progressive Era
- VI. Mobilization to Make the World Safe for Democracy
- VII. Democracy Again Engages in Social Reform

Thus the semester closes as it opened, for after one hundred years democracy is still reforming, and it is obvious to the students that to reform is an established democratic procedure rather than the "un-American practice" it is so often called during each "progressive" era.

As a sampling of the course it seems desirable to give a condensed version of the first unit here:

AMERICA, TODAY AND YESTERDAY Unit I

Democracy Engages in Social Reform (1830-1860)

The democratic upheaval of the so-called Jacksonian Era was not limited to our own country. Rather it was a worldwide movement not dissimilar to the struggle of the masses everywhere today for larger rights and greater opportunities.

Now it is your assignment not only to study and to appraise this pioneer attempt but also to appraise the ever recurring ef-

fort to apply the theory of democracy to all phases of American life.

Problems To Be Solved

1. To show what is accomplished when democracy engages in social reform.
2. To show how new discoveries and inventions have revolutionized and democratized life in America.
3. To point out the parallel between the pre-Civil War era and our own times.

Class Activities

1. "Labor Is on the March." Thus reads a familiar headline in the morning paper, and it is easy to evaluate the progress labor is making at the present time. In fact one can not escape doing so. Therefore it is profitable to investigate the beginnings of the workers' effort to apply the principles of democracy to labor. Give the reasons for labor's awakening during the Jacksonian Era. Discuss the methods the workers used, their program, and their accomplishment. Compare this early movement with labor's achievement today (Beard & Beard, 370, 311-14; Schlesinger, 510; Wilson, 423-24; Faulkner & Kepner, 440-45).

2. The application of the democratic ideal has been most successful in the field of politics. Suffrage was gradually extended to include all men, of course not without controversy. Account for this controversy. Are there people among us today who would question universal suffrage? Justify your answer. What was accomplished in Jackson's day by extending the suffrage? Associate this with labor's victory during our own times. Emphasize some of the effects of universal suffrage today (Beard & Beard, 314-22; Schlesinger, 10-13; Wilson, 333-35; Faulkner & Kepner, 209-10).

3. The struggle for democracy in education still goes on. Many people have come to question "the great investment" in education. Yet the fact remains that "if the people are to be free and equal," then, as Beard says, "education must be free and open to all." Trace the movement for tax supported schools. Emphasize: purpose and leaders of the movement; government

ownership and operation; elementary, secondary, adult, and college work; enrichment of the curriculum; library facilities, oratory, debate, and publications. Evaluate the free public school system then and now. (Sullivan, *Our Times*, Vol. II, pp. 1-212, gives an interesting account of the original system.) See special edition of *Scholastic* for additional material. Copies are in the class room (Beard & Beard, 376-83; Schlesinger, 71-73; Faulkner & Kepner, 578-81; Wilson 410-14).

4. It was inevitable that forward looking American women should apply the principles of democracy to themselves and their group. Thus early in our history there arose a Women's Rights Movement which has made tremendous progress. List the rights women demanded, and discuss the leaders who went forth to battle for democracy. Show just what was accomplished. Is there any need for women to guard their democratic rights today? Justify your answer (Beard & Beard, 373-75; Schlesinger, 73-75; Wilson, 420-23; Faulkner & Kepner, 577-78).

5. The American woman, however, was not only concerned about her own democratic rights. Indeed we find her in the vanguard of the great humanitarian crusade which still claims her time and attention. Public responsibility for the weak and unfortunate has ever been her demand. Show what socially minded women accomplished in such fields as: temperance, prison reform, world peace, state hospitalization for the insane. Trace the developments of these movements to the present time (Schlesinger, 76-78; Wilson, 420-23; Faulkner & Kepner, 576-77).

6. Everyone agrees that religious tolerance is a fundamental part of democracy. Thus it follows that religious tolerance will be extended during periods of democratic upheaval. Show that this was true during the Jacksonian era and that it is true today. Give also an account of such reactionary movements as the "Know Nothings," and the present Ku Klux, etc. (Beard & Beard,

375-76; Schlesinger, 80-81; Faulkner & Kepner, 581-84).

7. In our own day there has been much controversy about a better or more democratic social order in America. Plans and prophets there have been a plenty and out of it all has come much in the way of reform. That has ever been the result of such efforts in our history. List and discuss the plans and leaders of the present day movement. Compare these with those of the Jacksonian era and state any conclusions that are warranted. Select one of these early socialistic experiments and read widely about it. Report to the class (Beard & Beard, 371, 364-66; Schlesinger; Wilson, 420; Faulkner & Kepner, 575-76).

8. Democracy not only finds expression in religion, business, labor, social reform, literature, science, and education, but also in art. During the present era democracy has become a patron of fine art. Here in the West we find John Stuart Curry of Kansas painting murals in the state house and Thomas Hart Benton of Missouri doing likewise, to say nothing about the WPA artists and their contribution. Compare the present movement with that of the Jacksonian Era (Beard & Beard, 394-96; Schlesinger; Faulkner & Kepner).

9. It is Warden Lawes who, in his campaign for prison reform, has made us very much aware of man's inhumanity to man. In a like manner, abolitionists crusaded for human welfare a hundred years ago. Trace the history of the abolitionist movement and show its influence on our own history. When this is done, make any generalizations you can.

EACH of the succeeding units is full of present day issues, for certainly every period in our history has left us a heritage of unsolved problems. During the month of December, while the classes were studying imperialism, contemporary events—the sinking of the “Panay,” the massacre of the Haitians, and the fascist aggressions in Latin America—unfortunate as they were—were

nevertheless occurring with an almost planned regularity that was exceedingly helpful to classroom interest. All of this fired the students with an enthusiasm for the study of our foreign policy, for here they had an opportunity to see almost firsthand the kind of situations that fanned American sympathies into a war frenzy in 1898. Never before have contemporary happenings appeared to be so pertinent to the study of American history, and not to make use of these dramatic events is to neglect one phase of our history that will capitalize on the students' interest, the chief asset in the teaching of any subject.

The work of evaluation for this course has supplemented somewhat the traditional interpretation and factual testing program formerly used. Such new-type tests as generalizations, application of principles, attitudes, interpretation of data, and historical judgment and skills have been given rather frequently. Naturally not all of these forms have been used on any one unit or section. Yet the students are well acquainted with all of these evaluation instruments, and they have acquired a degree of achievement in each field tested so far. Since samples of these new-type tests are available at the headquarters of the Progressive Education Association, quotation here is unnecessary.

MUCH of the success of this study must be attributed to the arrangement for very close cooperation between the history and English assignments. The English instructor not only compiled reading lists to support the work done in the history sections but also presented the American literature to parallel the historical events. This procedure has given the students an invaluable background, and often it has been instrumental in arousing the interest of students whose work could not be motivated with the regular history material. The speech instructors also have cooperated in constantly reaching into the parallel history materials for their assignments. Floor talks are often rehearsed in the speech

classes, before they are presented in the history sections, and needless to say much more effective work can be done after such preparation.

This close association of the materials and teaching of history and English is all the more interesting, when we know that there is not only much repetition of teaching materials in our departmentalized schools but that there is also much crossing of purposes even within departments. Recently a student who had memorized a major role in a Shakespearean play was given an "incomplete" by her English teacher, because she had not been able to finish the memorization of the required number of lines in her regular English work. Obviously the functional memorization might well have been substituted for the routine assignment with benefit to all concerned.

FINALLY, I want to mention the use of such supporting materials as the *Weekly News Review* and the supplementary periodicals included in the students' subscriptions. Less direct, but nevertheless useable, are such radio programs as: "Brave New World," "America's Town Meeting of the

Air," "University of Chicago Round Table," and many others. With these may also be classed such pictures as: *The Plow That Broke the Plains*, *Wells Fargo*, *The Toast of New York*, *Lloyds of London*, *The March of Time*, to mention only a few which the students have seen and discussed pro and con in the classroom. At the moment they are looking forward to seeing as a group, in an all-school assembly on conservation, that great epic *The River*. Students are constantly on the watch for new pictures that pertain to their work in history and many of them have compiled attractive waiting lists.

However I often wonder whether I am doing anything very new or very different or just how progressive I am. Certainly other teachers are aware of this kind of popular appeal and are using the same kind of available materials with which to vitalize the presentation and study of history. Nevertheless I take pleasure in the fact that I have moved forward enough to wield a gavel instead of a rattan and to bang the desk instead of the student's head, even though at times the temptation is to do the latter kind of banging.

Eight Year Study

DES MOINES PROGRAM

Roosevelt High School

EARL S. KALP

THE "flexible" modern American problems course here described is a phase of the experimental core curriculum at Roosevelt High School, Des Moines, Iowa. In order that the reader may see the full setting of this course it is necessary to consider briefly the nature and organization of the entire experimental core curriculum in this high school. In grades ten and eleven

two periods each day are devoted to a core program based on the humanities, while in the twelfth grade the required work comprises a course in modern American problems and a course called "Practical Problems of Living." In all three grades students normally fill their schedules with two electives each year. Physical education is required one period a week for all. There is

a considerable range of extracurricular activities available beyond required work and electives, but the extent of participation naturally varies greatly with individuals.

Since one half the pupil's high school course is demanded by the core curriculum, it is essential that the work done in this core should be broad enough to provide a general base for cultured life. At the same time the work done should make possible the development of the background and the techniques required for successful college work.

In the humanities core of grade ten the study of the progress of world civilization, by means of a comparatively intensive consideration of several great cultural epochs, has been selected as a vehicle for leading pupils to see our present social order in perspective. In grade eleven there follows a study of modern times, centering about the development of the United States as conditioned by world events and related to them. With the background of these two years of work, in which ways of working, thinking, and discussing are emphasized as major objectives of the course, the pupil enters the twelfth grade. Here the central emphasis is upon contemporary American social problems. Political, economic, and sociological aspects of the problems are considered.

As a more individualized and specialized offering to young persons who are to be consumers of society's services and goods, the practical problems phase has been planned to develop an intelligent understanding of certain aspects of everyday living in an effort to avoid some of the trial and error methods so commonly found. Such problems as the selection of clothing, housing, adjustment of business, and the conscious development of the ability to get along with others have been taken as central points of training for greater fitness to meet the needs of living. This practical problems of living course is divided into four units of nine weeks each: personal and family relations, practical housing and home problems, per-

sonal business problems, and personal problems in English.

THE first matter of importance in the teaching of any subject is the basic theory of the nature of mind which influences the teacher. It is assumed here that mind consists of the experiences of the individual. Intelligence is regarded as "a certain unique type of interaction between a living organism and the things of its environment."¹ According to this view, education is a matter of enriching the child's experiences. The teacher's function is to provide opportunities for pupils to participate in interesting and useful situations in which desired growth may take place. The development of skills and the acquisition of information, while highly important, are incidental to the process of realizing a purpose or seeking a goal. Stated negatively, there is very little room in this view of the human mind for the inclusion of teaching techniques centering about mere memorization or acquisition of bodies of subject matter for its own sake. The major emphasis is placed on functional information related to the solution of specific problems.

The second major assumption underlying this course is that the democratic educational values are of greatest significance in meeting the present and future needs of youth in our rapidly changing and complex modern world. These democratic educational values are recognition and promotion of the dignity and worth of the individual, effective participation of the individual in group activities, and the use of intelligence in the solution of problems.²

If these values are to be realized the important task of civic education is to help the pupil to develop a method of attack on pertinent and perplexing current problems. A body of civic or economic facts and prin-

¹ John Dewey, *Democracy and Education*. New York: Macmillan, 1920, p. 120; also B. H. Bode, *Conflicting Psychologies of Learning*. Chicago: Heath, 1929, p. 266.

² Report of the Science Committee of the Commission on Secondary Curriculum. Mimeograph revision, 1937.

ciples will probably become obsolete in a very short time, but an objective method of attack on problems is quite likely to be of permanent value to the pupil.

Subject matter lines and fields are often barriers to a full understanding of vital problems that tend to cut across the traditional compartments of human knowledge. So it is assumed in this course that a functional integration of certain aspects and phases of civics, economics, sociology, English, and speech will be of great value to the pupil in building up a comprehensive understanding of the nature of modern American problems and in developing an effective attack on these problems. Such an integrated study of the vital questions of the day should provide a sounder basis and method for social action.

OBJECTIVE OF THE COURSE

THE specific objectives of the course are an outgrowth of such general principles and purposes, and they may be stated in terms of character and personality traits, functional understandings, and skills and techniques that should prove helpful to pupils as they engage in social thought and action in a democratic society. Limitations of space will not permit a complete analysis of these objectives here, but an abbreviated list and analysis will suggest the directions in which the course tends. One of the important purposes of the course is the development of such character and personality traits as an open mind, an inquiring mind, a critical mind, traits of responsibility, dependability, and perseverance, the habit of self-reliance, purposefulness, and an attitude of social concern. Certain functional understandings are important. Some of these are: an understanding, in the light of a well developed perspective of human progress, of the civilization in which we live; an understanding of "the essential interrelations between human life and activity and the natural environment which men seek to utilize more and more adequately";

and an understanding and appreciation of other civilizations through a study of the social, economic, political, and spiritual factors that produced them and an understanding and appreciation of their problems and needs. Others are: an understanding that the world in which the student lives has been and is constantly changing, that he must learn to adapt himself to further change, but that he can influence to some degree the direction and extent of change; and an understanding that the complex world in which he lives is highly interdependent and that community, nation, and world must cooperate to make possible the conveniences and satisfactions of modern life. Finally an understanding and appreciation of the significance of American institutions and of democracy as our way of seeking the good life and an understanding and appreciation of one's "role as an individual in the interdependent social, political, and economic groups of which he is a member" are important aims. Skills and techniques which we try to develop are good work habits, the use of a variety of materials, skill in reading, skill in using visual and auditory materials, and skill in problem solving.

SELECTION AND ORGANIZATION OF MATERIALS

CRITERIA for both the selection and organization of materials should be set up, if the objectives of the course are to be realized even partially. These criteria are derived from an analysis of the numerous objectives, some of which have been suggested. For example, an analysis of such objectives as open mindedness, critical mindedness, and an inquiring mind, in connection with problem solving, suggests a rather long list of criteria. They are of course not of equal value, nor can they all be met fully, but they do provide standards needed in evaluation and perhaps for intelligent selection of emphasis from the many possibilities. The following is an illustrative, rather than a complete list:

PROBLEMS
SELECTED:

1. Should have controversial bases
2. Should be those in which pupil prejudices already exist
3. Should be those in which new evidence can be submitted on this grade level
4. Must face the pupil with a problem pertinent to contemporary society and with which he can identify himself
5. Should bring pupils into contact with new patterns of culture
6. Should possess ramifications which may lead to significant areas of learning in other fields of content
7. Should demonstrate the scope of the social studies
8. Must be susceptible of analysis
9. Must permit application of principles derived to new situations
10. Should permit pupils to think in terms of his own goals enabling him to implement, enlarge, and limit those goals
11. Should be broad enough to permit generalization

PROBLEMS SHOULD BE
SO ORGANIZED THAT:

1. Controversies are clearly set forth
2. They build upon knowledge already possessed by pupils
3. Pupils are permitted to define problems that are real to them
4. Pupils will have opportunities to make tentative judgments
5. Potential leads into other subject matter areas exist
6. Pupils will be led to formulate their own goals periodically and see the relation of content to them
7. Pupils will be helped to analyze their own problems and make applications of principles to new situations
8. Opportunities are provided for pupils to contribute their own thinking to the solution of problems
9. They permit generalization

The practical value of such lists of criteria is that single problems or lists of problems may be screened through them to find out to what degree these problems contribute to the realization of the objectives of the course.

SELECTION AND ORGANIZATION OF UNITS

THE problems to be considered in this course are selected cooperatively by pupils and teachers. Every member of a given class has opportunities to make written suggestions concerning the selection and organization of materials. Committees of pupils work with the instructors in the actual planning of the course. This does not mean that the instructors merely stand in the back-

ground and have little part in the planning of units of work. It does mean however that pupil interests are taken into consideration in the selection of problems to be considered.

During the first semester the major emphasis has been on problems that are primarily political in nature. The problems of the second semester have been primarily economic. This does not mean that a sharp line has been drawn between political and economic problems. A conscious attempt has been made to consider political, economic, and sociological aspects of all problems considered. Furthermore, the list of problems is by no means fixed. It may vary a great deal from year to year. This variation is influenced to a great extent by community, national, and world events.

TWO types of unit organization have been tried. The first semester's work has been organized in a sort of structural framework as follows:

Unit I—What is Democracy?

Unit II—Some Current International Problems

Unit III—Some Current Problems of National Government

Unit IV—Current State Problems

Unit V—Current Local Problems

Each of these units includes a list of specific questions to be considered. Take Unit II as an example:

Unit II—Some Current International Problems

A. Is there a real danger of another world war in the near future?

B. Will the neutrality policy of the United States work in the present world situation?

C. Are organizations for world peace failing?

The second type of unit organization is illustrated by the kind of problems considered during the second semester of this course:

I. What is the nature of the economic society in which we live?

II. What are some of the difficulties we face

as consumers, and what can we do about it?
III. How much of our national income should we spend cooperatively through government?

IV. What are the causes of industrial unrest today, and what can be done about it?

V. What is "the good life" for me?

These lists do not represent the course as a whole but are merely illustrative of the two types of problem statement used.

EVALUATION

NOT only is an attempt made to check up on the pupil's acquisition of functional information needed for the consider-

ation of problems by means of objective fact tests, but other important aspects of evaluation are attempted. The instructors are interested in the pupil's attitude and in his ability to think. Scales of belief, interpretation of data tests, and application of principles tests are used. These are supplemented by anecdotal jottings concerning the pupil's use of study time, oral expression, and class discussion. Participation in social action is one of the items especially stressed in the anecdotal remarks that are a part of each pupil's record. Check sheets describing the progress that pupils have made toward objectives are issued twice during each semester.

Suggested Units for Elementary Grades

VERA L. ALLEN

THIS course of study for the elementary school is presented in the hope that it will suggest means for guiding children towards ever widening social knowledge, skills, attitudes, and ideals. Since attitudes and habits of thinking and acting develop slowly, it seems that any such program ought to be cumulative throughout the school years. Effort should, however, be made to avoid rigidity or crystallization.

A functional program seems especially necessary to an effective social studies curriculum. How better can children learn the art of living together than by experience in social living according to principles of democracy and habits of considering others, being fair, sharing both materials and ideas with others, and meeting responsibility? Understanding and appreciation of democracy can be increased by living and participating in a democracy of the classroom. Consideration for others can be practiced not only towards friends but towards children less well liked, towards the janitor, regular and substitute teachers, and all those

met during trips and excursions. Habits of fairness, of intelligent and honest voting, of cooperation, both with materials and ideas, can all be cultivated on the playground, in voting for representatives on the school paper, in school programs, and in school organizations, as well as in classroom activities. The ability to assume responsibility grows by assuming responsibility.

The members of one third grade take turns at such responsible posts as those of housekeeper, florist, attendance secretary, lunch secretary and waiters, classroom librarian, craftsman, and host or hostess for guests. They even lead assembly programs. If student waiters forget to order napkins, this class expects them to do something about it!

Throughout the school there should be various means of testing, or checking, to see that the children are getting the necessary knowledge and skills. But if the school program is a success the results will show in social living, as well as in such tests. Reports sent home, and parent-teacher conferences, ought to take account of the child's contributions and interests, of his abilities as well as his needs, and they ought to invite parents to comment. The child himself also may write a comment to be included in the report.

There should be constant cooperation between children and teacher. The teacher should neither attempt to force a plan, nor sit back and wait. Pupils and teacher together can develop a course more suitably than can the teacher working alone.

The elementary school has become a land of mystery to most high school teachers, few of whom have kept informed of changes in the content, methods, and new emphases in the primary and intermediate grades. This article by a teacher in Friends Academy, Locust Valley, New York, should be as illuminating to secondary school teachers as it is suggestive to their elementary school colleagues.

CERTAIN devices may help to make this kind of teaching effective. As an aid to a feeling of continuity and orderly sequence in social studies teaching in the intermediate grades a time line may be kept in a conspicuous place, perhaps across the front of the classroom. In order constantly to integrate the work of previous grades with the work and ideas in hand at present, such a time line may well be kept to scale and include important points learned in preceding years. If emphasis is kept on the present effect of all these past events, the continuous flow of life will become more and more evident and pupils may be led to consider what may be the contribution of their own generation to the future, and what kind of life and achievement will best build on the past and for the future.

THREE types of class periods are needed: periods of directed work for the mastery of skills; free periods to be spent according to the child's interests and abilities, which incidentally provide an excellent time to observe what real individual growth has occurred; and socialized periods when all the children are expected to work for some common end, though each may work in a different way, some reading, some typing, and some perhaps writing a poem.

THERE should be opportunity for varied mental activity, for investigation, experimentation, dramatic play, construction in widely different media, assumption of real responsibility, well planned trips where the living past may be evident and where the present is explained here and now, real discussions, and real cooperative enterprises. In all these we teachers must constantly ask ourselves not only whether the time is well spent according to social studies standards but whether, if art, for instance, is the medium used, it is used according to art standards of color and design, as well as the spirit of the period and locality represented. If drama is the medium used, we must consider where the emphasis lies and whether

it should lie there. One very important question should constantly be considered and answered: Has the activity clarified, or confused, thought?

SUGGESTED UNITS

A SUGGESTIVE list of units to be used in grades one through six may be offered, although not as a rigid plan. The term "unit" is used for convenience only, to suggest groups of interrelated learnings. Any selection ought, of course, to be made with a view to the needs of the particular children and the objectives and perspective of the course as a whole.

Certain types of experience should find a place in each of the elementary grades, the sixth as well as the first. Among these are: (1) opportunity to change the environment by making a lasting contribution of something really needed, such as furniture for a library corner of the classroom or bulbs planted at the school entrance; (2) leadership—developed through reading biography suitable for boys and girls, through recognition of leadership in the local environment, through initiative in good will, in art, music, nature study, and in medicine, science, education, religion, and government; (3) attention to the home and family, with opportunity for the six year old, the eight year old, or the ten year old to develop more effective relations at home; (4) nature units to develop love and enjoyment of birds, trees, flowers, animals, soils, rock formations, and the sky, and an appreciation of their influence upon human life; (5) a pre-vacation unit, a research unit to be followed during the summer, and completed in the fall, for example, a well organized nature exhibit or a report of a series of observations, of things grown, of things made or things originated; (6) holiday units with emphasis on the significance of the specific holiday; (7) current events, studies which should be utilized but, because of their relative unimportance in perspective, must not be permitted to control the course.

Other possibilities are plentiful if additional units are needed: (1) recreational opportunities in the community; (2) city planning—how the community might be made more beautiful and more comfortable; (3) improvement in social living—the development of a keener social conscience, from primitive life to present living; (4) population studies, initiated by pupils' questions and fascinating even to some third grade groups; (5) interdependence of many peoples from the far past of the world and from far distant places of the world; (6) the history of lighting, and such other interests as may develop in individual classes.

A SIX-YEAR PROGRAM

ONE possible sequence of units, well adapted to developing minds and personalities, starts in the first grade with the consideration of the home, cooperation in home life, entertaining, sources of food supplies and their transportation.

Grade two can then study the distribution of food through the grocery store, means of communication as represented by the telephone and the post office, community protection by the police and fire departments, primitive adaptation to geographical environment, as shown by a study of the American Indian who used to occupy the lands now belonging to our own community, and perhaps the development of communication by oral and written language.

Grade three will be ready for a study of the history of book making, of what interesting things a map can tell, of the time when the world was young, down to the beginning of agriculture, of man's adaptation to environment as represented by the Eskimo hunter, the life of the herdsman in the Arabian desert, and primitive village life in the African Congo, and of weather and climate.

Grade four, according to this sequence, may study further land and water forms and the processes of change and adjust-

ment between the two, our inheritance from peoples who lived many years ago and the characteristics of those peoples, our fellow citizens and immigrants then and now, the westward movement in our country, other parts of our nation and perhaps our neighbors in Mexico and Canada.

Grade five then can, with a proper dependence on what has been learned earlier, consider our own state, life in the middle ages, the renaissance, the age of exploration and trade, of Marco Polo and Columbus, the steady increase of man's control over his environment, the development of the monetary system, and the beginning of an understanding of how we are governed.

Grade six may then study the different kinds of industries and professions in the United States. It can study Asia in connection with the earlier units of the study of maps and environment in the third grade, of land and water forms and of our inheritance from the past in the fourth grade, and of the age of exploration and trade in the fifth grade. Out of that unit naturally can come a consideration of Great Britain and her possessions. A study of Europe can follow in connection with that unit, and also with the earlier study of immigration in the fourth grade and with the fifth-grade units of life in the middle ages, the renaissance, and the age of exploration and trade. Closely related to Europe will be a unit on Africa, which also has a special link with the third-grade study of environment and the study of exploration and trade, and units on South and Central America, which have also a special relation to the fourth-grade study of immigration and of Mexico as one of our neighbors. An appropriate end to this year will be a unit on world citizens, which also relates itself to such fourth-grade units as our inheritance from the past, our immigrant ancestors and present citizens, and our national outlying possessions, and to such fifth-grade units as the age of exploration and trade, the increase of man's control over environment, the development of the monetary system, and government.

SAMPLE UNIT FOR FIRST GRADE

FIRST-GRADE consideration of "here and now" devotes one unit to providing a house and living in it. The primary objective is of course the growth and development in all ways, physical, emotional, intellectual, and spiritual, of each individual child as an individual, of the class as a group, and of the teacher and parents in their insight and appreciation of the abilities and needs of the children—one of the objectives that applies throughout the six grades.

Other general objectives might be selected from the following: new and wider interests, appreciations, and meanings; a clearer idea of some of our needs, and how they are satisfied in the here and now, which will give added meaning to the life and needs of people in other times and other parts of the world; increased eagerness for truth, knowledge of where to find sources of information, and ability and habit of weighing evidence; growth in ability to contribute to a common goal, to evaluate one's own contributions, and to appreciate the contributions of others; a corresponding improvement in standards of workmanship in reading, oral, written, and artistic expression, and mathematical judgment, and in ability to think and estimate in quantitative terms.

As objectives more specific to this particular unit the following might be considered: a more satisfactory orientation of the child in his home life, and the clarification of his ideas of the family—his own first social unit—and particularly his part in it.

Motivation is clearly affected by the fact that first-grade children are naturally interested in "home" and in playing house. They need guidance merely to carry their thought and experience to higher levels than they alone would carry them.

Activities for this unit are numerous. In group discussion the children may consider why people have houses—for warmth, protection from storms, animals, and other

people; opportunities for home life; kinds of houses—single, duplex, flats, frame, brick, stucco, stone, and less common fabrics; the many kinds of people needed to build a house—architect, mason, carpenter, plumber, painter, paper hanger. They may take a walk to see different kinds of houses and if possible one under construction, to notice what rooms a house has, something of how it is built, and perhaps talk with some of the workmen. They may look at books with pictures of houses, especially those being built and those being lived in, may collect and mount pictures for the bulletin board and for scrapbooks, may draw and paint house scenes and may make a house book with the front and back covers the front and back of the house and each page a separate room with appropriate furnishings. Paper families may well be made. Houses may be built with Hill Floor Blocks, Lincoln Logs, or discarded orange crates. While some children are building the house and furniture, others may be making articles for decoration and convenience, as a picture for the walls, a vase, books, a newspaper, a piano or radio, or a simulated garden and front walk.

In all this the children are developing a reading vocabulary about houses and home life. They are reading and telling stories about home life and houses, opportunities and responsibilities. They create stories, verses, songs, lullabies, and, enjoying music in the home, they listen to suitable songs and rhythms and participate in them. In making the house and furniture, in dramatic play, and in preparing and serving refreshments they measure and estimate quantities.

The groups may take turns playing house and out of the dramatic play may arise useful discussion. Why keep a house orderly and clean? Why use a house and its furnishings carefully? Why repair parts that wear out? They consider the need for good workmanship and good materials. They discuss the attitude of different members of the family toward all the others; and espe-

cially of the six-year-old toward his parents, his elder brothers and sisters, his younger brothers and sisters, his grandparents and older guests, the servants. Why obey parents? Why be cheerful? Why be helpful? Why not tease for money and candy? Why be careful of clothes? Why not bother his elder brothers and sisters? Why be patient and helpful to his younger brothers and sisters? Why remember family birthdays? Why be more quiet when grandparents and older guests are in the house and why be ready to serve them? Why be cooperative and appreciative to servants? Can a six-year-old help the whole family save for something it wants, as a new car or a summer vacation?

The culminating activity may come in the next section of the unit, "entertaining in the home." Then the children, during the tea party to which guests have been invited especially, may give talks, dramatizations, or tell original stories, which unify their experiences and learnings. This leads naturally into a study of food, a subject near the hearts of six-year-olds, and food is suggested as the subject for the unit to follow. Also it leads naturally into a study of other home needs, such as communication and transportation.

SAMPLE UNIT FOR SIXTH GRADE

A UNIT on world citizens can serve as the culminating unit for the six grades. The objectives are practically those set down as objectives in the first grade unit, but with the necessity of realizing them on a more mature level and widening the ideas of orientation in home life to include orientation in the world, and clarification of ideas about the world, our largest social unit. We might also add such other possible objectives as an increased appreciation of the gifts of the world, a more specific understanding of the interdependence between us and the other nations of the world, a more intelligent and keener desire for world peace, and an increased urge to fulfill

individual responsibility toward world progress. Franklin Bobbitt's "What Understanding of Human Society Should Education Develop?" in the *Elementary School Journal* of December, 1924, suggests that one of the most important objectives is to add to a growing realization that our own welfare is dependent upon the general welfare of all people everywhere, that defeating others in the end hurts us.

Motivation of such a unit is not difficult, since before leaving the elementary school children are interested in the world and in their part in it. They frequently talk about "the whole world" and can easily be led to ask "What has the whole world to do with us, and our lives?"

ACTIVITIES may be considered in several aspects. (1) Have the countries of the world grown nearer together? (2) Are we making more contacts with the outside world? (3) In what ways are nations trying to cooperate and to maintain a peaceful world? (4) How can sixth-grade pupils be good world citizens?

In a consideration of the first can be included such activities as making two colored and dated outline maps, one of the United States in Washington's time and the other with the United States and all its possessions at the present time. Another similar activity is to make bar graphs showing, with dates, the time it took the "Mayflower" to cross the Atlantic, the time it takes the "Queen Mary," and the time it takes an airplane; or indicating, with dates, the time it takes a message to cross by cable or by radio. In the same way graphs may show, with dates, the distance from New York to China or from San Francisco to London before and since the Panama Canal was built, from London to China before and since the Suez Canal was built. From the moving pictures, radio programs, and books which the pupils have seen, heard, and read, they might list these that show scenes in other lands, are broadcast from abroad, or were published abroad; or they might mark with

a cross every item referring to any foreign country in the news or advertisements of a large city newspaper. A more sustained activity would be writing a story from the imaginary point of view of a boy or girl in the middle ages to show how much of the world was known to them and to what avenues for obtaining information they were restricted. To sum up all this, the construction of a time line would be useful to show the "shrinking" of the world and the transfer to the general classroom time line of the dates that show themselves to be significant in this "shrinking."

MORE contacts with the outside world can be illustrated by activities emphasizing the exchange of goods, the mingling of citizens of different countries, and the exchange of ideas. On the exchange of goods such a list as this might be offered. (1) Make a list of the things you own that are stamped with the name of a foreign country. (2) Bring something that you prize highly that was imported, or that is a copy of a foreign idea, to show the class. (3) List all United States imports, articles and country from which they come, and amount imported yearly. (4) List all United States exports, article, country buying them, and amount exported yearly. (5) Find what the former President, Herbert Hoover, said about exchanging goods (quoted in *Richer Ways of Living* by Florence H. and Howard E. Wilson and Bessie P. Erb. New York: American Book, 1937, p. 642). (6) Hang a large world map above a table. On the table place articles you collect that have been imported from foreign countries. From each article have a ribbon, or string, leading to the country from which it was imported. A natural colored string may be used for raw materials, and a red string for manufactured articles. (7) An American flag, or a picture of the Statue of Liberty, may be placed on a table with specimens of our exports grouped about it, and a world map hung above. Ribbons or strings may be used as suggested in preceding activity.

(8) Discuss: Would war between other countries affect the United States? How? Were you ever unable to buy something you wanted because another country was at war?

On the mingling of citizens of different countries a teacher might offer such activities as these. (1) Find out how many American citizens are living in other countries, and in what countries. How many do you know who are? On a world map indicate the countries in which American citizens are living. (2) Find out how many American citizens travel in foreign countries annually. In what countries? How many do you know who have? (3) Find out how many citizens of foreign countries make their homes in the United States. From what countries? (4) Find out how many citizens of other countries travel in the United States. From what countries? Have you met any? Do they come to study our ways of living? Do they come to give us concerts, and plays? Do they come to teach us? Collect and post newspaper clippings telling of them. On a world map indicate countries from which people are temporarily in the United States. Make a bar graph showing how many are here as students, as exchange teachers, on concert tours. (5) Do you belong to any international organization? Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Red Cross, Salvation Army? If you do, give a report to the class about your international work.

The exchange of ideas is equally fruitful as a topic. The class may divide into committees to report on different aspects. For music these activities may be suggested. If the class listens to the Damrosch concerts, make a list of the different countries represented by the composers listed in the year's program. What countries have given you your favorite victrola records, piano pieces, and folk dances? What countries have contributed to your church music? What foreign musicians have you heard? What music has the United States contributed to the world? Plan a concert entirely by American composers, and use no instruments invented elsewhere! Read about the International

Society of Contemporary Music. For art: What buildings in your city show ideas copied from other countries, as pillars, arches, et cetera? What statues have you seen that were copied from statues of other countries? What pictures? What art has the United States contributed to the world? Plan an American art exhibit. Find pictures of a house of American architecture, and furnishings of American design. Have nothing, not even pictures on the walls, or raw materials in the curtains, copied, or imported. Plan a wardrobe for yourself with no imported designs, raw materials, or manufactured goods, not even imported buttons! For literature: A committee may ask at the public library how many authors of other nations are represented in the library. What favorite children's books were written by authors of other countries? What American authors have written children's books that are being read by children in other countries? For medicine: What nations have made discoveries that are saving our lives? Read about Jenner and vaccination, and Thomas Jefferson's thanks; Pasteur and germs and the pasteurization of our milk; or Lister, antiseptics, and asepsis, with the gratitude expressed by the United States ambassador to England. What has our country contributed?

Many other activities could be profitable for this unit. Plan an all-American athletic meet with games and equipment all native American. Plan an all-American menu for one day with recipes, raw materials, utensils all native American. Write a story imagining yourself and friends living in a land that for some strange reason could not be reached by any person from any other land, and imagine that you had never heard that there was any other land. Describe your life, your home and its furnishings, your food and clothing, your recreation and beliefs. Remember that all raw materials, all inventions, all ideas must come from your own land. Would life be as enjoyable without the other countries of the world? Read about organizations for international recog-

nition and exchange of ideas, such as Nobel Prize, Association for the Advancement of Science, or the Royal Society of London.

WAYS in which the nations are trying to cooperate and to maintain a peaceful world are varied and lend themselves to interesting study. Without international agreements such necessities as latitude, longitude, international date line, and standard time are impossible. Then there are the international postal union, the ice patrol, electrical and radio communication cooperation, the international institute of agriculture, the Pan American Union, the World Court, Andrew Carnegie's gift, and judges from the United States, such leaders in world peace as the former Tsar of Russia, Theodore Roosevelt, and Woodrow Wilson, the League of Nations, as an association of nations working together for world betterment in its health work and efforts for intellectual cooperation. Conservation of natural resources may be a matter of international agreement as the fur seals saved by cooperation of the United States, Russia, Japan, Great Britain or of international disagreement as in the present controversy over salmon fisheries. To illustrate the situation among the Americas pupils might make a Pan American map and might locate and consider the situation symbolized by "The Christ of the Andes."

More things to do may be suggested, but it is necessary to point out the dangers of a crowded program. A teacher should strive to be selective and to choose a few from a multitude of possibilities, of which only a few more can be included here. On an outline map of the world, color all nations belonging to the World Court blue and on another world map color nations belonging to the League of Nations red. Keep a scrap book of clippings showing international good will and cooperation. Make a list of ways in which people of different countries work together. Schools near the Canadian, or Mexican, border may well have an international meeting of students from both

sides of the border. Consuls from other countries may be asked to tell about their work. Make a "mural" showing "Friendship Among Nations." Make peep shows, each showing a way in which nations cooperate. Create a song or poem of good will to all nations. Write imaginary autobiographies, biographies, or travelogues, showing international cooperation. Give a reflectoscope program showing graphs, maps, and diagrams. Develop a pageant on international friendship for assembly or a PTA meeting.

WORLD citizenship and the creation of the consciousness of world citizenship may well form the basis for discussion. To sixth-grade pupils asking themselves how they can be good world citizens, the answer of this course would be that they should be informed, keep interested in other parts of the world, be appreciative of all kinds of people and courteous to them, be friendly, learn to settle their own disputes by fair discussion, help when opportunity arises, and if they travel abroad remember to be courteous.

The culminating activity might be a book, "Citizens of the World," made by the class and presented as its contribution to the sixth-grade library. Leads into further study are numerous, both for independent study and in connection with the junior high school courses. At its best such a course forms a useful fundamental orientation for a complete life. At less completely successful levels it is at least pointing in that direction.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books for the first-grade unit on the home and living in the home are plentiful, and only a suggestive list can be given here. Some of the material may well be presented in a simplified form and may be typewritten in primer type. Obvious suggestions are the encyclopedias and other reference books, and there are the *Curriculum Records of the Children's School* published by the National College of Education (Evanston, Illinois, 1932), a chapter on "The Family Group" in *Where Our Ways of Living Come From* by Florence H. and Howard E. Wilson and Bessie P. Erb (New York: American Book, 1937), such sets as the Raggedy Ann Series by John B. Gruelle (New York: Bobbs and Joliet, Illinois: Volland, 1928-31),

and *Peter's Family* by Paul R. Hanna, William S. Gray, and others, one of the Curriculum Foundation Series (Chicago: Scott, Foresman, 1936). Among the many other useful books are *Home* by John F. Waddell, Lois Gadd Nemec, Maybell G. Bush (New York: Macmillan, 1936), Dorothy W. Baruch's *A Day with Betty Anne* and *I Know a Surprise* (New York: Harper, 1927 and Boston: Lothrop, 1935), Ruth Langland Holberg's *Mitty and Mr. Syrup's Farm* (New York: Doubleday Doran, 1936), *Amelianne* by Eleanor Farjeon (Philadelphia: McKay, 1933), Hugh Lofting's *Story of Mrs. Tubbs* (New York: Stokes, 1923), and *Workers* by Laura Zirbes and Marian J. Wesley (Meadville, Pennsylvania: Keystone View, 1928).

Books and teaching materials for the sixth-grade unit can be drawn from many sources. Help is to be had from encyclopedias, *The Book of Knowledge*, *World Book*, *World Almanac*, the *Junior Encyclopedia Britannica*, from such standard series as *The Pageant of America* edited by Ralph Henry Gabriel (New Haven: Yale University Press) and the *Pageant of America Educational Lantern Slides and Films*, the free educational catalog of victrola records and the books on music appreciation with the victrola for children from the education department of the Victor Talking Machine Company at Camden, New Jersey, daily newspapers, current and back numbers of such magazines as the *Geographic*, *Asia*, *Travel*, and *My Weekly Reader*, published by the American Education Press at Columbus, Ohio. Various public and private agencies will provide specific answers to questions and masses of printed material. The Government Printing Office at Washington both provides information and prints government material, some of it free. The State House in your own state and the local and state Chamber of Commerce have a variety of such services. The Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Washington, issues lists of imports and exports by articles and country. The League of Nations Association, Inc., 8 West Fortieth Street, New York City, maintains an educational office for answering questions, supplying speakers, and distributing literature. Other agencies as the Committee on World Friendship Among Children, 289 Fourth Avenue, New York City. The American Red Cross, Seventeenth and D Streets, NW, Washington, D. C., and the Office of Education Advisory Committee on the Radio, Washington, D. C.

The League of Nations Association, 8 West Fortieth Street, New York City, publishes as a separate pamphlet Harry Emerson Fosdick's "Prayer for the Spiritual Union of Mankind" which is useful on its own level, as is Josephine Daskam Bacon's "Hymn for the Nations." Educational games such as "Flags" may be used, or "Wide World Game" of Hendrik Van Loon (Parker Brothers, Inc., Salem, Massachusetts). "Book Friends of Many Nations" by Annie I. M. Jackson in the October, 1931, issue of the *Elementary English Review* includes a bibliography.

Where Our Ways of Living Come From, *Living in the Age of Machines*, and *Richer Ways of Living* by Florence H. and Howard E. Wilson and Bessie P. Erb (New York: American Book, 1937) offer a variety of material. Other books to be considered are *Exploring American History* by Mabel B. Casner and Ralph H. Gabriel (New York: Harcourt Brace, 1931), *The Old-World Beginnings* by Mary G. Kelty (New York: Ginn, 1932), Edna McGuire's *Full Grown Nation* (New York: Macmillan, 1937), Leonard Outhwaite's *Unrolling the Map* (New York: Reynal & Hitchcock, 1935), *Story of Nations* by Lester B. Rogers, Fay Adams, and Walker Brown (New York: Holt, 1934), *Builders of Our Nation* by Olive E. Smalldge and F. L. Paxson (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1933), and *The Story of Our Country* by Ruth West and Willis Mason West (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1935).

Have You Read?

KATHARINE ELIZABETH CRANE

OF THE world's three current wars, in Ethiopia, Spain, and China, the one in Ethiopia has passed into the stage of guerrilla warfare, of the extent and character of which we know very little. To help us Ernst Wiese, in the March *Harpers*, gives his view of "Ethiopia Now," almost two years after the victorious Italian army marched into Addis Ababa and the Italian government proclaimed the annexation of Ethiopia. He writes that "the more optimistic of Viceroy Graziani's staff could claim that as much as two-thirds of the huge New Empire was under control of military residents stationed at strategic positions. The remaining territory, covered with densely wooded mountain ranges . . . is, however, still a No-man's-land where Italian policing operations except by airplane are a practical impossibility." On the economic side his picture is equally unfavorable to Italian hopes. The expected returns from what were believed to be Ethiopia's large mineral resources have not materialized. As for returns from agriculture, "at present, as Italian colonial experts have frankly admitted to me, the cost of road building and pacification has taken all of the government funds available, so that the realization of a large-scale agricultural program must await the day when Ethiopia will be provided with all-season asphalt roads and there will be no more fear of guerrilla warfare." He thinks that as early as last May "even the humblest tax payer had begun to realize that the conquest of an empire is an expensive luxury for a State with an unbalanced budget. The day when the Ethiopian ad-

venture will begin to pay dividends is far, far away."

A close examination of the Italian government's achievement within Italy herself reveals certain failures to Carl T. Schmidt, who in the January-March *Marxist Quarterly* discusses "Farm Labor in Fascist Italy." The article undertakes to set forth the results of a fairly detailed examination of the present situation of farm labor and of the changes under the fascist government. The writer thinks that "Fascist agricultural policy . . . has operated predominantly in the interests of large and medium landed property, commercialized agriculture and finance capital. It has been inimical to the great mass of poor peasants and agricultural workers." It is of course impossible for a casual reader to estimate the accuracy of the figures or of the conclusions drawn from them. However it ought to be borne in mind that the general world economic depression has been felt in Italy also. That and perhaps other facts ought to be taken into account rather than lay the whole blame upon the political situation.

SPAIN

SPAIN'S civil war continues to be complicated by the fact that it is also a European war involving Italy, Germany, and Russia. Abnormally cold and stormy weather and the stubbornness of the fighting around Teruel slowed the pace for a time, but the comparative calm, utilized by each side to prepare for another trial of strength, has already been broken. As for the final outcome and what may be sup-

posed to be our own interests and desires in that outcome, the March *Atlantic* prints two articles on Who Shall Save Spain? In "The Case for Franco" Ian D. Colvin describes the insurgent movement as "fundamentally a movement of defense and of preservation. The decent people of Spain had to defend themselves or die." In "The Case for the Government" John Langdon-Davies describes "the case for the government as it stood in July 1936—a legally elected, democratic government trying against great odds to institute the type of social-economic reform that has been part of our birthright in England or America for centuries. . . . Strong as the case was then, after the events of the last eighteen months it is immeasurably stronger."

Technical aspects of the war have naturally absorbed the attention of military men and commentators. A military discussion that is also suitable for the lay reader is "Some Aspects of the Civil War in Spain" with an excellent map in the English *Army Quarterly* of January, 1938. The article is written from the point of view of the "Nationalist" army, that is Franco's or the Insurgent army, and the writer thinks that "if the end of the war is not yet in sight, there is no sign either of any psychological fatigue engendered by its continuance. Morale is high, life is good, the somnambulism of centuries has been exorcised. The natural vitality of the race, which has for long lain dormant, has reasserted itself in the face of battle, and, although the end of violent events can never be foreseen with certainty, the people of Nationalist Spain look into the future with superb confidence."

The same kind of description has been applied to the Loyalists, and the appalling spectacle of destruction of men and treasure will apparently continue for some time. Meanwhile onlooking nations might do well to consider wherein lie their own national interests—as opposed perhaps to the class interests of dominant factions—and what measures they ought to take to protect those national interests.

CHINA

WAR in China and some books recently written about China are discussed in the *Saturday Review of Literature* for March 5, 1938, by Carl Crow, the author of *400,000,000 Customers* and of *I Speak for the Chinese*. Taking as his basis Varian Fry's *War in China*, he points out wherein that little book fails to give a rounded view, and then he discusses briefly the point of view, value, and bias of seven other books. Together, this brief article and the brief *War in China* will do a good deal toward providing any reader with a useful working knowledge of the situation, and both of them are entirely within the grasp of high school pupils. A single issue of the *Saturday Review of Literature*, 25 West Forty-fifth Street, New York City, costs ten cents, and *War in China* in paper costs twenty-five cents, one dollar in cloth, from The Foreign Policy Association, 8 West Fortieth Street, New York City (not paid advertising!).

Glimpses of the ancient beauty that is in peril or already destroyed in China can be obtained from such articles, with pictures, as "Destroy, Destroy, Destroy" by Alan Priest in the March *Asia* or in "China's Great Wall of Sculpture" by Mary Augusta Mullikin and Anna M. Hotchkis, "Buddhist Calm Along China's Great Wall," and "Hong Kong—Britain's Outpost in China," all in the March *National Geographic Magazine*.

DIPLOMACY

DIPLOMACY is the name applied to the method and apparatus whereby official intercourse is carried on between friendly nations. Most nations maintain a good many representatives abroad. The custom affords permanent members of the diplomatic and consular services colorful experience in various countries, possibly—though one may doubt it—widens their knowledge and understanding of peoples and events, and constitutes for many of them a satisfactory life. Most of such repre-

representatives spend their time giving parties and going to parties with others of their kind or the few natives, usually rich, who happen to belong to their social set. Nothing is more typical of the situation than the brilliant appointments and magnificent food of the parties at the newly reopened Russian embassy in Washington. As a guest in those splendid rooms built for Czarist Russia one can not help realizing how false it all is. It is utterly alien to both hosts and guests. What have we of democratic America to say to representatives of communist Russia in the midst of all this pomp and splendor? We have plenty of ideas to exchange, and, I think, agreements to make, but not in such surroundings as these. As it is, the ideas Americans receive are false, and the ideas they give are equally false. This way lies no possible ground for a common understanding.

Presumably the chief purpose of the expensive system of diplomatic representation is to convey to foreign countries typical and satisfactory information concerning American point of view and American intention, and also to provide our own government with dependable reports concerning the point of view and intention of the foreign country and of the internal politics which will in the last analysis decide questions of foreign policy.

In these circumstances we should do well to review the whole question of appointment of foreign representatives and of desirable modes of their living abroad. By custom the higher posts have usually gone to pay political debts, although occasionally an administration has afforded itself what current slang calls a "luxury appointment" of a distinguished scholar or author. Since ambassadorial salaries are what they are, it costs the appointees large sums of their own money to maintain the style of living which the state department considers necessary for the dignity and position of these United States; but there has been no administration in which it was impossible to find some rich man eager to pay out these

sums of money. The question is whether we like the way they do it. Perhaps it would be better to undertake to provide reasonable incomes for our representatives abroad, in all grades, and therefore be able to choose able but poor men for the posts. On the other hand perhaps it would be better to reorganize our ideas—and the state department's ideas—about what constitutes a suitable style of living for the representatives of what is after all a very real social democracy in which social classes are fluid past all European understanding.

Wealth or the appearance of wealth is perhaps one of the conditions of an ambassador's popularity among the rich and socially prominent of the country to which he is accredited; but, considering the present and, we hope, future importance of popular opinion, it might profit us more to have an ambassador whose associations teach him something about the general situation throughout the region. For instance, it is probably of very great practical importance for us to come to a sound conclusion about the strength of the German opposition to Hitler and of his German support, and of Mussolini's strength and weakness in Italy, and how best we may help the one and hinder the other. Perhaps this is essentially more important than to know what they themselves plan to do next. None of these things can be known with any exactness, but the problem is for us to decide how to make the best possible guess.

Moreover it is not to be overlooked that apparently popularity is no indispensable factor for success as an ambassador. Historically the man who was probably our most successful ambassador—his post carried only the rank of minister then—was so unpopular in the country to which he was accredited that he and his family actually dreaded the necessity of making an appearance at public functions to which he was invited on account of his official position. He was not asked to private parties. Yet history is well agreed that, during our Civil War, Charles Francis Adams was the largest single—and

deciding—factor in keeping Great Britain from openly espousing the cause of the South.

MARQUIS W. CHILDS discusses the efficacy of present methods and customs in an article in the *March Harpers*, "It Is Called Diplomacy." He thinks that "sometimes the consequences are merely absurd" and that "again they may be extremely serious, charged with tragedy . . . for that clearer understanding of international affairs which is such a vital need to-day." He cites, as practical examples of the present situation, the behavior of foreign representatives accredited to Spain and the ridiculous impasse over recognition of Italian conquest of Ethiopia as necessary to accrediting ministers or ambassadors to Italy. "It is our tragedy to-day that the bankruptcy of traditional diplomacy should be so apparent at the very moment that the need for some instrument of international understanding is so desperate."

POLICY

SO much then for our instrument of negotiation. What then for our policy? Are we going to find some workable formula for cooperation with other nations in the interests of peace? Or will we try to go it alone? Or are we going to equip ourselves with the largest, the frightfullest, and the most expensive navy in the world? Or are we going to stop three quarters of the way towards that goal? Or half? With the world suffering from a general case of jitters it seems too bad that the one country which has the least to fear could not set an example that might help prevent everybody from lapsing into complete hysteria. Besides it has been demonstrated that the very largest navy and the very biggest army can not be guaranteed to prevent war.

It is agreed that many difficulties lie ahead of us. Their number, their character, and the possibility of escape is a continual subject for speculation. Louis Fisher writes in the February 26 issue of the *Nation* of

"The Road to Peace" and believes that "America's contribution to this peace policy would be safe and inexpensive. It would consist, chiefly, in withholding from aggressors the materials which they need to pursue their murderous adventures. . . . It is not neutral to assist the stronger side. . . . We take sides by doing nothing." He thinks that such a course would not lead to war because the aggressor nations are unwilling to "assume the additional task of attacking great powers."

In the *March Harpers* Elmer Davis explains that "We Lose the Next War," although "alone of the great powers, we have some freedom of decision, thanks to geography." On the assumption that "war will mean regimentation whether we go in or stay out," for a democracy "it would do us little good to win victories overseas if we lost everything we were fighting for here at home." Since everybody, victors and vanquished, neutrals and belligerents, is going to lose the next war, we shall "lose it whether we go in or stay out," he thinks "we shall lose it less disastrously if we stay out. By going in (and winning) we could make the outcome somewhat less calamitous for the world; but for our own interests, isolation is likely to be less costly than victory." In spite of the complications of evasion and graft, of internal strain and dislocations, and rigid governmental control such as we have never contemplated, he advocates a regulated neutrality, based on a cash-and-carry basis with all exports, except farm exports, limited to their normal peacetime quota; and he carefully works out the complications for and against, and what chance such a plan might have to be undertaken in the first place, and, undertaken, to weather the storms of a great war beyond our borders.

"But is the war inevitable? . . . God knows. . . . Norman Thomas finds the only hope of lasting peace in 'a new social and international order,' Mrs. Roosevelt in 'a fundamental change in human nature.' Different words for the same thing; it would

save us no doubt if it happened, but don't expect it to happen this week."

The "Coming International Crisis" seems equally grim to Frederick L. Schuman reporting for the past month in *March Events*. "The Western democracies thus continued to drift, shrinking from common action, avoiding any challenge to the Fascist Triplice and seeking precarious safety in arms. The Fascist powers moved forward to hack their way through their difficulties. By the third month of 1938—appropriately dedicated to Mars, the god of war—world politics would be closer than ever to a contest for supremacy between lunatics and paralytics. In such a contest the madmen must win."

ARMAMENTS

OPINION is divided as to the wisdom and necessity of "Roosevelt's National Defense Program," which is taken as the topic for the March issue of the *Congressional Digest*. There is an exposition of what is proposed, comparative figures to indicate the relative situations in other countries, and articles "Pro" by Admiral W. D. Leahy of the United States Navy, by the committee on military affairs in the House of Representatives, by General Hugh S. Johnson, and by Bernard M. Baruch. The articles "Con" are by Gerald P. Nye and Ernest Lundeen, Charles A. Beard, Bruce Bliven, and Louise Bransten. On those often-used words "defense" and "protection" Dr Beard's comment is pertinent, "Who is to be protected? Where? And in doing what?"

What things we could buy "Instead of Battleships" is discussed by Jonathan Mitchell in the *New Republic* for February 16. It is not true that we, or anybody else, can spend the money and still have it. It is not true that we can pay money for taxes and still have it to spend, so possibly some taxpayers would prefer to do their own spending. But this article in no wise takes that possibility into account. It is concerned with possible flood and erosion control,

parks, highways, investigation and control of disease, and other public works. The array is dazzling and quite enough to excite a nation's cupidity!

POSSIBLE PARTNER

GREAT BRITAIN, in spite of disillusion of these and other days, still stands at the forefront of possible partners with whom to undertake an adventure of peace. Some of our citizens, and our advisers not always our own citizens, are sure that therein lies our natural course of action.

"Our Bonds with the British" are discussed in the *North American Review* for Spring 1938 by Livingston Hartley. "The intimacy between the United States and the British Empire, growing progressively through the depression years, has today reached an all-time high. . . . Some Americans believe, for these reasons, that we could not afford to allow the British Empire to be destroyed, that it would be preferable to intervene ourselves in an overseas war rather than to permit such a disaster for America." It ought not be overlooked though that defending British democracy involves defending the British empire, just as defending French democracy involves defending the French empire. It is not easy to plan wisely.

Not so favorable to Great Britain is the opinion of Elmer Davis in "We Lose the Next War." Remarking "that the unpaid war debts, though far from the best argument for isolation, are the argument that is politically the most effective," he goes on to say that "the present British government is an excellent argument for American isolation. Its foreign policy for the past seven years has been an almost unbroken series of blunders. It proved its unscrupulousness by the way it got rid of King Edward . . .; proved its stupidity in the Manchurian affair; and proved both when rebellion broke out in Spain. A government that hazards its own imperial interests to protect class interests, and fails to protect

either, would be no safe partner in war or in the making of peace."

Since that was written the secrecy which in England surrounded the resignation of Eden and the assumption by Chamberlain of the kind of one-man-rule to which the British system seems to lend itself does not make the picture any different from that particular point of view.

Appeasement in Europe is discussed in the March 1, issue of *Vital Speeches* by the two men who lead the opposing factions, "We Must Not Continue the Vendetta" by Neville Chamberlain and "We Must Not Yield to Pressure" by Anthony Eden.

AS we go to press the situation developing in Austria provides its own grim commentary on the inability of democratic countries to unite on the essentials of their own common interests. Bad or good partner, perhaps Britain is the best we can find and perhaps we had better try to get her.

Meantime Joseph Kennedy is our ambassador to the Court of St James's appointed at the time when United States seems to be going to make every effort to enter into some kind of a tariff agreement with Great Britain. Certainly we started this senseless game of tariff-keep-you-out-and-me-in, but the present secretary of state, Cordell Hull, is making valiant and, in the circumstances, remarkably successful efforts to remedy the situation. As for the chances of success in this particular direction James Frederick Green in "Britain's Foreign Trade Policy," *Foreign Policy Reports*, January 15, 1938, says, "despite optimistic statements that the most serious stumblingblocks have been cleared away in preliminary discussions, the path of an Anglo-American trade agreement remains beset with formidable difficulties."

CORRESPONDENCE COURSES

"HIGHSCHOOL BY MAIL" by R. W. Root in the March *Survey Graphic* tells how in Benton Harbor, Michigan, supervised correspondence courses "from

reputable, endorsed institutions" are used to add to the limited vocational program otherwise possible to an average American high school. "While elementary pupils can get along well enough with a few standard subjects, adolescents have broadening and varying interests. Even in a big city where highschool studies have a wide range of subjects from which to choose, many fail to find the vocational courses that meet their needs. Small highschools simply cannot afford to hire teachers for subjects in which only one or two students are interested."

DAY-TO-DAY LIVING

FUTURE life on this planet—1988—is envisaged alluringly in the March *Harpers* by Arthur Train, Jr, in "Catching Up with the Inventors." It is no world of wars or of slow recovery from the shock and devastation of wars that he depicts, but a world in which one gets out of bed in the morning after the room is warmed by heat turned on by a radio-controlled clock, travels around in a "steep-flight airplane" while the children content themselves with an old-fashioned automobile that crawls along at seventy miles an hour, and eats incredible dainties grown in "heated trays containing various salts."

If you do not believe in the possibilities suggested just read in the same magazine Edith Wharton's description of "A Little Girls' New York" out of her own past, and put that New York—or America—of the seventies beside New York as you know it in 1938. After you have done that, you will be willing to believe anything!

Today day-to-day-living for many persons includes reading their favorite columnist in their favorite newspaper. It is a development that seems to be characteristically American, and one that grows rather than diminishes in popularity. The *Nation* has undertaken a series of sketches on the subject, "Columnists on Parade" by Margaret Marshall. The first of the series in the issue of February 26 is a general survey of the

field with lists, scores, and brief characterizations of the most prominent columnists. The article in the issue of March 5 is devoted to Westbrook Pegler, that of March 12 to Hugh Johnson.

Certainly day-to-day-living also includes the questions of consumer prices for various commodities in their relations to price maintenance laws and governmental policy and practice. *Survey Graphic* is beginning a series on "The Case for the Consumer," and in its March issue prints articles on various phases by Charles E. Phillips, D. E. Montgomery, and by Robert H. Jackson, whose point of view is also interesting, since his ambitions to be governor of New York are believed by most informed persons to represent one stage on the sunlit path to the White House.

SHOE ON THE OTHER FOOT

FOR two months past we have been interested in articles on the new propaganda methods—or adult education if you prefer—by the business world in the *Harpers'* articles on "Business Finds Its Voice" by S. H. Walker and Paul Sklar. The March installment is as good as usual, although its best story, about Lord and Thomas' campaign for chain stores, has been already discussed in the February issue of this department.

Another article this month, in the *Atlantic*, shows how well the shoe fits the other foot, too. In "Government by Mimeograph" Lawrence Sullivan, out of his wide experience as reporter for individual newspapers, the United Press, Associated Press, and the Scripps-Howard Alliance, presents the case against the increasing number of general publicity writers in the federal agencies, some five times as many as there ever were in any previous administration. There are now about three hundred of these men and women on the government payroll, and a rather generous payroll it is with salaries between \$3600 and \$12,000 a year.

The line between propaganda and proper public adult education concerning govern-

mental problems and policies is of course impossible to draw; but, nevertheless, the opinions and charges here set forth ought to be considered carefully. "Two charges are to be made against government propaganda, the first, in statement of fact, the second, constant use of emotional appeal and bitter invective against public criticism." This is a careful, and for the most part unassailable, review of such practices as juggling budget figures, shifting bases of comparison without due notice, truthful evasion, and the presentation of facts and figures whose real meaning is otherwise than is apparent. "Doubtless many of these changes were justified on grounds of administrative economy or technical efficiency; but . . . neither press, radio, nor motion picture can ever prove a going policy ineffective so long as it is impossible to gain comparative figures from the only source equipped to compile them." From this analysis of the technique of "hard names for the opposition" and answering a critic by discrediting him I shall select one well known example. "When Colonel Charles A. Lindbergh, then a resident of the United States, published early in 1934 a letter criticizing sharply the President's summary cancellation of the air-mail contracts, he was denounced by a White House secretary as a publicity seeker." Whatever may be our individual opinions about the end justifying the means, it is necessary to take very careful account of the means lest the ends actually achieved turn out to be entirely different from those we planned and intended.

"President Roosevelt has denied many times that he seeks to exercise undue control over public opinion, but the open record to date appears to offer at least circumstantial evidence that, unwittingly perhaps, he has permitted an important segment of his administration to fall into an attitude of mind and a pattern of conduct which in other countries have led ultimately to complete suppression of free speech and free press."

AMERICAN WAY AGAIN

"COMMON honesty certainly requires no re-definition, and it is the application of common honesty which we need first of all." With these and other equally basic pronouncements Carl Dreher in the March *Harpers* presents his version of "The American Way: A Voice from the Left." Only the voice is not typically that of the Left! That does not mean that the presentation of the article is trite or that its author is insincere. Quite on the contrary. The author is direct and informative. You don't have to agree with him, but you must listen to him. I can indicate only a part of his argument. "By economic democracy we understand a balance between capital and labor based on collective bargaining, governmental regulation, income taxation, and whatever other measures may be required to effect a redistribution of income from the propertied to the propertyless. The purpose of this redistribution of course is not naïvely to divide the property

of the rich among the poor. The rich do not have enough property to make such a division worth the trouble. The purpose is to relieve the distributive strangulation which now afflicts the system, and to enable the stepping up of production to an undetermined maximum which will bring prosperity to the whole people instead of a fraction." His view of possible future alternatives is convincing. "Whether the liberal solution of an ameliorated capitalism will work remains to be seen. Attacked from the right, unable to go far enough to the left, it might, like Social Democracy in pre-Hitler Germany or pre-Lenin Russia, turn out to be merely a transitional phenomenon." Then, passing over the possibility of a fascist outcome, he examines the claims of communism and inclines to the belief that "collectivism is the future eventuality in the United States"; but—and this is where he parts company from most radicals—he still knows that "what the future holds in store for us we do not know."

NOTES AND NEWS

NATIONAL COUNCIL AT ATLANTIC CITY

The National Council for the Social Studies met on February 26 and March 1 as the Department of Social Studies of the NEA at the Atlantic City Convention of the American Association of School Administrators. Kathryn E. C. Carrigan was chairman of the committee on local arrangements, on which William K. Schwab, Helen Scott, and Harry M. Fagan, all of Atlantic City, also served. Saturday morning, February 26, Fremont P. Wirth presided at a session concerned with "The Function of the Secondary School in the Development of Citizenship." E. C. Grizell of the University of Pennsylvania considered the school as a coordinating agent for all the youth organizations of the community. He urged education *in* rather than merely *for* citizenship, through experience rather than books alone; certainly books are not enough for the 10 to 20 per cent of the high school population who are unable to learn from printed material. Books and knowledge contribute to citizenship only as they aid in meeting the practical problems of everyday life. Professor Grizell objected to the tendency to transfer to the school many responsibilities formerly assumed by the home, the church, and business, noting homemaking, industrial preparation, physical education, citizenship training, and speech among the new concerns of the schools. All of these actually are continuing processes, in which theory and practice must be constantly associated in all aspects of the pupil's living. The high school can, however, serve as a coordinator, drawing all community institutions and groups into the process of citizenship training, taking care of the special needs of non-readers, providing life situations through which real training in citizenship can be provided. He suggested the coordination of libraries, social

service agencies, recreational facilities, and such youth organizations as the 4H Clubs and the Hi-Y's, and proposed the participation of youth in various non-competitive community projects—the development of parks and recreational centers, slum clearance, cleanup campaigns, and welfare activities, for which some precedents have been set by the WPA and the CCC projects.

Will S. Alexander of the Virginia State Department of Education followed, defining citizenship as full participation in democratic processes. The secondary school is handicapped in citizenship training, he said, because of its institutionalization, its withdrawal from its supporting group. In order to establish close contacts with actual society it will be necessary to abandon the traditional subjects. Half or two-fifths of school time should be devoted to activities. Provision must be made (1) for grasping, participating in, and improving social life, (2) for a wide variety of rich experiences, and (3) for wide freedom in pupil selection of subject matter. Subject matter must be concerned with some problem of significance to the community and the pupil; otherwise it makes no difference what the particular problem is. There are really but two classifications of subject matter: (1) man to man relationships, or social studies, and (2) man to nature relationships, or science. The rest of subject matter—language, drawing, music, etc.—are arts, through which these two classifications are expressed. Dr Alexander described the successful working of the program he was advocating in a classroom in one small Virginia city.

In the discussion, led by Manley E. Irwin of Detroit, some objections were raised to Dr Alexander's recommendations. He was criticized for the apparent assumption that all past

and present teaching has been or is bad, undemocratic, and unrelated to life; for failing to differentiate the program for different pupil abilities and needs—the 10 to 20 per cent of non-readers whom Professor Grizell and another 20 per cent of high intellectual capacity; and for failing to recognize that problems are very uneven in importance and complication and that the problems of the community and adults may not be problems to pupils. The need for systematic knowledge of the past and the present, in their various historical, geographical, political, and economic aspects was urged, the soft, easy, and superficial skimming of the surface of a random sampling of problems condemned, and the need for highly competent teachers and a wide range of teaching materials in the study of problems was stressed, with the suggestion that integration should be the fitting together of substantial parts.

At the luncheon session Howard R. Anderson introduced George S. Counts of Teachers College, Columbia, who outlined "A Program for Political Democracy." Doubting that we have succeeded in giving young people political sense and understanding through their school experience, he suggested eight needs: (1) the knowledge necessary for free men; (2) the organization of the masses of the people to give political power to them; (3) a strong and efficient government, not all-pervading but able to act effectively, rather than stopping with debating and promises—which, Mussolini has charged, are the limits of democratic action these days; (4) government monopoly of police and military power, such as the United States has maintained; (5) the enforcement of civil rights and liberties; (6) the exposure of political propaganda; (7) the conservation of the democratic temper—in which the schools can help; and (8) the avoidance of war, which breaks down democracy, substituting the domination and regimentation of the military mind.

Two sectional meetings were held Saturday afternoon. At that on visual and auditory aids John T. Greenan of East Orange, New Jersey, was chairman. William H. Hartley of Brooklyn, New York, spoke on the use of sound films, noting the need for helping students select better films and guiding them in appreciation and resistance to propaganda, and suggesting specific procedures. The coming of

documentary and government films—"The Plow" and "The River"—the current evaluation for schools of films of past years, the human relations films with which Dr Alice Kelliher is experimenting for the Progressive Education Association, and the increasing production of special classroom films were commented upon. The paper of Daniel C. Knowlton of New York University concerned the interrelationships of educational objectives, content to be taught, and methods and media through which teaching takes place, with particular attention to graphic media, their adaptation to school purposes, and implications for teacher preparation, attitudes, and procedures.

Kathryn E. C. Carrigan presided over a meeting concerned with contemporary social problems in secondary schools. The speakers were DeWitt S. Morgan, superintendent of schools at Indianapolis, Donnal V. Smith of the New York State College for Teachers, Albany, and Leonard Kenworthy of the Brunswick School, Greenwich, Connecticut; Ruth Wanger, principal of the South Philadelphia High School for Girls, led the discussion.

Following the dinner meeting Roy A. Price of Syracuse led in an informal symposium on the challenge of needs in political citizenship.

On Tuesday afternoon, March 1, a joint meeting of the National Council and the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers explored the "Educational Objectives Common to the Foreign Languages and the Social Studies." Wilbur F. Murra of Harvard University was inclined to doubt that there are common objectives, but James B. Tharp of Ohio State University and Theodore Huebner of the New York City public schools emphasized the values of foreign language study in developing knowledge and appreciation of other lands and cultures; Mr Huebner called attention to the special value to children of recent-comers to this country. Others who participated in the discussion were Burton Fowler of the Tower Hill School, Wilmington, Delaware, Paul B. Diedrich and S. P. McCutchen of Ohio State University, Harry Heller of the Fieldston School, New York City, Elmina Lucke of the Lincoln School, Teachers College, Columbia University, and J. Burroughs Stokes of Hatboro, Pennsylvania.

Meetings of the Executive Council were

attended by Charles C. Barnes, president of the National Council, Howard R. Anderson, second vice-president, Howard E. Wilson, secretary-treasurer, R. O. Hughes, Fremont P. Wirth, Edgar B. Wesley, and Erling M. Hunt.

Plans for the June meeting with the NEA in New York and for the meeting in Pittsburgh on November 25-26 are in progress.

NEW ENGLAND

The spring meeting of the New England History Teachers' Association, will be held on Saturday, April 23, at Phillips Andover Academy. The theme will be "Our Financial Policy. Where Is It Taking Us?"

MIDDLE STATES

The Proceedings of the Middle States Association of History and Social Science Teachers appeared in March. It includes discussions of post-war diplomacy, the Supreme Court and judicial review, the powers of the executive branch of the government, the World Court, Marshall's social-process approach to the organization of the social studies, and other subjects.

The annual spring meeting of the association will be held at the Wardman Park Hotel, Washington, on Friday and Saturday, April 29-30.

NEW YORK CITY

The Association of Social Studies Teachers of the City of New York will hold its annual luncheon at the Hotel New Yorker on Saturday, April 30, 1938. Two symposiums will be held in the morning. In one, of which Sidney Barnett of the Richmond Hill High School will be chairman, "The Social Studies in a Changing World" will be discussed by Roy W. Hatch of the Montclair State Teachers College, Alice M. Gibbons of Rochester, and Howard E. Wilson of Harvard University, the secretary of the National Council for the Social Studies. In the other, of which Edward M. Cohen of Samuel Tilden High School will be chairman, "America Faces the Future" will be the theme for Clarence Updegraff of the National Association of Manufacturers, James Oneal of the Social Democratic Federation and the American Labor Party, and William Browder of the Communist Party.

The theme of the luncheon will be the "Theatre as a Social Force"; Miss Anita Block,

playreader for the Theatre Guild, will be one of the principal speakers.

Joseph C. Driscoll of Erasmus Hall High School has arranged a large exhibit of the works and publications in the field of the social studies. Members of the Luncheon committee are Adolph Stone, chairman, New Utrecht High School; Jay Golub, treasurer, New Utrecht High School; Samuel Steinberg, Samuel Tilden High School; Mildred K. Kemmerer, Curtis High School; Lucian Lamm, Franklin K. Lane High School; Marion Jewell, Washington Irving High School; Mrs Lillian Chutroo, Bay Ridge High School; Elizabeth Scanlon, James Monroe High School; Grace Anderson, Grover Cleveland High School; and Benjamin Rosenthal, High School of Music and Art.

Tickets are available from the treasurer of the committee at two dollars per ticket. Address Mr Golub at the New Utrecht High School, Brooklyn, New York. B. R.

Dr George Gallup, director of the American Institute of Public Opinion, addressed the Association of Social Studies Teachers of the City of New York on the topic, "Measurement of Public Opinion," at the Herald-Tribune building on Saturday morning, March the twenty-sixth. Dr Clyde R. Miller, director of the Institute for Propaganda Analysis, also addressed these teachers. J. C. D.

There has been recently published a profusely illustrated report on the use of municipal ferryboats in the study of civics, entitled "Civics Afloat." Sixteen thousand pupils from forty high schools participated. This project was carried on last September and October by the civics office of the New York Board of Education. Commissioner Ellsworth B. Buck sponsored the experiment. One of its objectives was "not only to inculcate good citizenship but also to develop a feeling of pride in one's city." Winfield L. Rice, acting director of civics, in charge of the project, states "perhaps the most valuable results of our trips were in the field of attitudes and appreciations." An examination given at the close of the experiment revealed that those who had made the trip had a wider knowledge and a better appreciation of their city than those who were unable to participate. Thirty-one photographs of the children on the boat and of scenes along the waterways of New York City appear in the thirty-seven pages. J. C. D.

NEW YORK STATE

The theme of the Associated Academic Principals of the State of New York for study for the ensuing year is the *Individualizing of Teaching Practice in Classroom Procedures*. The Milne High School, Albany, has appointed a committee of its staff, headed by Dr Robert W. Frederick who has been released from some of his other duties, to devote the requisite amount of time to directing an intensive study of this program. Other cooperating schools include Cambridge High School (Rowland Ross, principal); Richmondville High School (Thurston Paul, principal); Burnt Hills-Ballston Lake Central School (F. W. Crumb, principal); and some others. Some concrete procedures will be presented at the summer meeting of the Academic Principals at Colgate University and the Christmas meeting in Syracuse.

D. V. S.

NEW JERSEY

The New Jersey Association of Teachers of Social Studies is sponsoring a series of regional conferences this year, under the leadership of its president, Harry M. Fagan of Atlantic City. That for the northern region was held at the State Teachers College, Montclair, on February 26, under the chairmanship of E. Schuyler Palmer of the Montclair High School.

Meetings for the southern region were held at Glassboro State Teachers College on February 19, and for the central region at the Trenton State Teachers College on March 7.

CHICAGO

On February 2 the regular meeting of the Round Table, an organization of men interested in the social studies and related fields, was held at the Hotel LaSalle, Chicago. C. L. Kuhn, of the Central High School, South Bend, Indiana, read a paper on the subject, "Curriculum Building in the Social Sciences in Secondary Schools." A thought-provoking discussion followed the paper.

H. C. H.

The Chicago Council for the Social Studies held their monthly meeting February 21 at the Y.W.C.A., 19 South LaSalle Street. D. E. MacKelmman, executive director of the Metropolitan Housing Council was the guest speaker. The topic was "Housing Problems in Chicago"; a round table discussion followed.

Anyone in the Chicago area who desires notification of our meetings should communicate with Miss Grace Frederick, secretary, Tuley High School, 1313 N. Claremont Avenue, Chicago.

G. F.

MISSOURI

The Missouri Council for the Social Studies is planning a distinctive type of meeting for its annual spring conference. The conferences will be divided into two sessions, one to be held at the State Historical Society of Missouri and the University of Missouri, and a second session to be held in the State Capitol at Jefferson City. The purpose of these sessions is to acquaint the teachers of Missouri with the resources of the state which are usable by the teachers in the classrooms. The meetings will be held at Columbia and Jefferson City on April 23.

The February issue of the *Missouri Social Studies Bulletin* contains "Amphytrion 38½," by Perry O. Saunders, an amusing echo of the November meeting of the National Council; "The Perturbed Teacher of International Relations," by W. M. Hagar; "Social Studies Councils in Missouri," by Blanche Camden, and various shorter items. For each of this year's issues of the *Missouri Social Studies Bulletin* an associate editor is appointed, to bring in new materials and fresh view-points. Marlow A. Markert of Jennings High School assisted in preparing the November issue, which was distributed at the St Louis meeting of the National Council. The February issue was edited by Elizabeth A. Wiley of Jefferson City and her colleagues. The April issue has been turned over to Maynard Willis and the teachers of Southeast Missouri, and the May issue has been offered to the teachers of the Northeast Junior High School in Kansas City.

The St Louis County Commission on the Teaching of the Social Studies is in the process of completing its final report. The report will be in six sections, five of which will include sample units of work on successive grade levels. The first section will be an introductory statement which is to be used with each of the separate portions.

J. C. A.

TEXAS

The March issue of *The Social Studies Bulletin*, issued by the Dallas District Council for the Social Studies and edited by Winnie D.

Nance of the Woodrow Wilson High School, is chiefly concerned with the teaching of local and state history, with particular reference to Texas.

The Social Science Section of the North Texas District, Texas State Teachers Association, met at Denton on March 11-12. Kathryn Garrett of Fort Worth spoke on "Classroom Procedures that Educate for Democracy," Helen Fern Black of Dallas on "Correlation of Speech and Social Studies," and Spencer Stoker of Texas State College for Women on "The Teaching Approach to the Social Studies."

M. R.

SPOKANE

On Thursday, February 24, an evening dinner meeting of the Spokane Section was held at which Dr Charles Schliecher of the Eastern Washington College of Education, Cheney, Washington, delivered an address on "Recent Economic Trends." The meeting was attended by approximately fifty members and guests.

The section is looking forward with keen interest to a luncheon meeting on April 7 at which Dr George S. Counts of Teachers College, Columbia University, is to be the speaker.

N. C. P.

"THE STORY BEHIND THE HEADLINES"

"The Story Behind the Headlines," a new series of radio talks on history, began on Friday evening, March 4, and will continue for ten successive Friday evenings from 7:15 to 7:30, EST. It is broadcast over the National Broadcasting Company's blue network (Station WJZ in New York).

This series is being presented under the joint auspices of the American Historical Association and the National Broadcasting Company. As its name implies, it is a series of talks on the history that lies behind the events of the day. Each week some event of front page importance will be the take-off for a talk on some phase of the historical background of that event.

Because the American Historical Association does not feel that the lecture technique of the average professional historian is one which will interest the average radio listener, it has co-operated with the National Broadcasting Company in enlisting the services of Mr Cesar Saerchinger, an experienced radio commentator. Mr Saerchinger brings to the task a knowledge of radio and of journalism derived from

years of experience in this country and abroad. He will base his talk each week upon material provided by an expert historian, after consultation with that historian. It will be part of the contribution of the American Historical Association to select the proper historian. The result should be the best of two worlds, the best of scholarship combined with the best of popular radio presentation. It should produce talks of the utmost interest for every American who reads the news. We commend this series of broadcasts to your attention and invite your comments. Please send suggestions and criticisms to Evelyn Plummer Braun, Director, 226 South 16th Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. Copies of the talks, which are being printed by the Columbia University Press, will be available at a cost of ten cents each or one dollar for the series. They may be obtained by writing to "The Story Behind the Headlines," Radio City, New York, or to Mrs Braun.

HISTORY TEACHING IN ENGLAND

A small number of schools in England are currently experimenting with new syllabuses in history in which content is organized along specific "lines of development" instead of by chronological periods. This innovation parallels what in this country is sometimes spoken of as "unitary history." Americans will find very illuminating the set of three articles in *History* (December, 1935, December, 1936, and December, 1937) by M. V. C. Jeffreys describing the underlying principles and tentative results of the experimentation. The last of these articles develops the thesis that "developmental studies enable the pupil to be master of his books, and not their victims."

Reference to the articles cited in the preceding paragraph provides an occasion for calling to the attention of history teachers in the United States that excellent London quarterly, *History*. This is the official journal of the Historical Association and so is primarily devoted to scholarly articles and reviews. However, it is an established practice to devote one or two substantial articles in each issue to problems of history teaching. For example, in the issue of last December, in addition to the article by Jeffreys, there is a compact six-page "Memorandum on Illustrations in Textbooks," the many specific points of which could be read with profit by publishers, authors, and teachers

in this country. Other articles appearing within the past year include "The Teaching of History by Means of Models" and "The Place of American History in English Education." W. F. M.

COMPARATIVE SOCIAL ATTITUDES

An extensive and admirable research study of social attitudes is reported in the December *Journal of Educational Psychology* by Maurice M. Smith. Using careful techniques and large numbers of cases, the opinions of high school seniors, their high school teachers, their parents, and a group of college professors were tested with respect to industry, the state, the family, the school, and the church. Contrary to common belief, strength of opinion was found to be positively related to amount of information. As a group the professors were most emphatic in their opinions; the seniors least so. However, the professors and teachers were both more liberal as groups than were the seniors and their parents. Perhaps most significant of all was the fact that seniors' opinions corresponded most nearly to parents' opinions and were most unlike the opinions of the professors. After commenting on the disparity among the four groups tested, the author concludes, "There is little evidence in the present study to indicate that social-studies instruction in our schools is succeeding in developing in our California high-school seniors attitudes and intelligent opinions toward issues basic to citizenship and social betterment beyond those which the seniors share with their parents as a group.

"The opinions of no one group reflect an interpretation of social issues which would be accepted by other groups as an expression of the dominant social values and aspirations of the democracy. In view of the strength of these conflicting opinions, it would seem that any application of a restricting 'frame of reference' to specific issues would inevitably compel the schools to attempt an indoctrination of attitudes and values contrary to those held by the parents of our high-school children."

W. F. M.

PROPAGANDA STUDY

Propaganda: How to Recognize It and Deal with It, has been published by the Institute for Propaganda Analysis as an experimental unit of study material for junior and senior

high schools. Eighty-three pages are given to the definition of propaganda, explanation of its role in the modern world, and the need for making pupils aware and critical of it, to kinds of propaganda appeal, and to methods of studying propaganda in advertisements, addresses, newspapers, on the radio, in schools, churches, and elsewhere. A bibliography is appended—omitting, strangely, the *Seventh Yearbook* of the National Council for the Social Studies, "Education Against Propaganda" (1937).

The price for one to nine copies is 60 cents each; for ten or more, 50 cents each. Address Institute for Propaganda Analysis, 132 Morningside Drive, New York.

AMERICAN YOUTH

The February issue of *The Journal of Educational Sociology* carries five articles on "The Challenge of Youth." Harvey W. Zorbaugh analyzes the effect of the depression and unemployment on youth. He finds the solution imbedded and partly obscured in the economic conditions that face us, but sees no immediate probability of a communist or a fascist youth movement. Francis J. Brown, repeating the question "How Fare American Youth?" summarizes and reinforces the volume of that title by Rainey and others. Edward J. Kunzer writes of "The Youth of Nazi Germany." M. M. Chambers describes "Organized Youth in America"—the membership, resources, and economic and political philosophy of the Y's, Boy Scouts, Epworth League, and many other organizations. George E. Outland analyzes "Factors Involved in Boy Transiency," a study based on Los Angeles statistics for 3,352 boys.

STUDENT DISCUSSIONS

The Bureau of Educational Research at the Ohio State University, Columbus, has published *High-School Students Talk It Over: A Report of Actual Discussions by High-School Students About War, Motion Pictures, the High School, Radio, and Parents as Given on the Ohio School of the Air*, by I. Keith Tyler and students of the University School (1937. 55 pages. 25 cents; address the University Bookstore). The discussions, though brief, are frank and illuminating.

PUBLIC AFFAIRS PAMPHLETS

The highly valuable series of Public Affairs Pamphlets, has recently been extended by the

following publications: *This Question of Relief* (number 8. 32 pages. 1938); *Readjustments Required for Recovery* (number 11. 32 pages. 1937); *Colonies, Trade, and Prosperity* (number 13. 31 pages. 1937); *Farm Policies Under the New Deal* (number 17. 29 pages. 1938); and *Why Women Work* (number 17. 31 pages. 1938). Single copies are 10 cents. Address Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 8 West 40th Street, New York.

POPULATION TRENDS

"Population Trends and Their Educational Implications" is the title of the NEA *Research Bulletin* for January, 1938 (vol. XVI, number 1. 60 pages), also published by the Educational Policies Commission under the title "The Effect of Population Changes on American Education." The growth, internal movement, changes in age distribution, occupations, and health conditions of the population are among the topics considered. The effects on elementary, secondary, and higher institutions, on methods and guidance, building, teacher preparation, adult, urban, and rural education, and school finance are also treated.

Address the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, NW, Washington. Single copies, 50 cents

CONTINUING EDUCATION

Dr A. Stephen Stephan in *Learning in Leisure: The What and Why of Adult Education*, a pamphlet prepared under the sponsorship of the Minnesota Department of Education, raises the question of whether it is enough to organize education to meet existing needs and conditions. "The impact and rapidity of change today," he believes, "give no comparable assurance that formal education in youth adequately prepares one for life." "Education is not something to be segregated solely to the years of childhood and youth; it should be lifelong in continuity." Dr Stephan's discussion of the population age trends and their implications is especially good.

I. A. D.

SOCIAL STUDIES IN YEARBOOKS

Yearbooks of national educational organizations frequently contain materials of pertinence to the teaching of the social studies. No exceptions are the several volumes which appeared in February.

The widely publicized Sixteenth Yearbook of

the American Association of School Administrators, entitled *Youth Education Today*, maintains a social orientation throughout. Most directly relevant to social studies instruction is Chapter V on "Creative Citizenship," in which the limitations of subject matter courses are contrasted with the possibilities of training for citizenship by more pupil participation in actual school living.

The problems of maintaining the health of teachers are treated in the Ninth Yearbook of the NEA Department of Classroom Teachers. An advance statement on "Teachers and Cooperation" appeared last November by the yearbook committee of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, whose complete volume will appear this summer.

The National Society for the Study of Education devoted Part I of its Thirty-seventh Yearbook to *Guidance* and Part II to *The Scientific Movement in Education*. In the latter volume are three pertinent chapters. One by Howard E. Wilson and Wilbur F. Murra contains a summary of the contributions of a generation of educational research to actual practice in the teaching of the social studies. Two other chapters consider the contributions to education of scientific knowledge in sociology and economics, written, respectively, by Willard Waller and Harold F. Clark.

The two parts of the Thirty-sixth (1937) Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education might also be mentioned. Part I, *The Teaching of Reading: a Second Report*, prepared by William S. Gray, Donald Durrell, Arthur I. Gates, Ernest Horn, Mabel Snedaker, and others, includes much material of direct interest to social studies teachers, who find reading problems of increasing importance. Part II, *International Understanding Through the Public-School Curriculum*, prepared by a committee of which Isaac L. Kandel was chairman, concerns the social studies curriculum at various grade levels and in many aspects.

PAGEANT OF AMERICA SLIDES

"The Pageant of America Lantern Slide collection has been thoroughly revised, and a new 32-page catalog listing these excellent slides prepared by the Yale University Press, 386 Fourth Avenue, New York City. In harmony with suggestions received from schools and museums throughout the country, changes have been

made and new slides added until the material represents a unique and comprehensive collection of authentic prints, drawings, paintings, photographs, maps, etc., invaluable for teachers of American history and the social studies.

"One thousand black and white slides have been selected by members of the Department of Education of Yale University from 11,500 illustrations which appear in the fifteen volumes of *The Pageant of America*. Of this number, 625 have been edited and classified into 24 convenient teaching units by Dr Daniel C. Knowlton of New York University, and 275 have been grouped under 15 general headings such as 'Portraits,' 'Maps,' 'Charts and Diagrams,' 'Papers and Documents,' etc. Throughout one general principle has been followed—the slides, individually and in groups, must be of interest to the child as well as the trained historian. They have been selected with the idea of bringing the pupil into as close a physical or sensory contact with history as the topic permits.

"Each slide bears a key number which refers to the corresponding illustration in *The Pageant of America* volume, in which also appears an interesting and authentic explanatory text with the picture. Dr Knowlton's introduction to the slide catalog gives some helpful suggestions for teaching procedure, including specimen lessons on units and individual slides" (*Educational Screen*).

PICTURES FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

"From Informative Classroom Picture Association, Grand Rapids, Michigan, comes news of a new series of pictures for use in the teaching of Social Sciences. These are black and white line drawings 8½" by 11" printed on bristol board, each unit consisting of some twenty large plates. The series when completed will include ten units, which correspond to the units of activity taught in most schools. The titles are: 'Home and Community Life,' 'Clothing and Textiles,' 'Pioneer Days,' 'Life in Colonial America,' 'Knighthood—Life in Mediaeval Times,' 'Transportation,' 'Christmas in Many Lands,' 'The Farm,' 'Indian Life,' and 'Modern Primitive Peoples.' Three of the units are already completed and in use, and the others are in progress. Concise text material, a bibliography, and suggested activities accompany each unit.

"The pictures have been organized as units

around natural centers of child interest with the idea of providing clear, forceful, informative pictures that explain and clarify the subject and stimulate pupil research and activity. The legend which accompanies each picture tells its own interesting story and answers the questions which the details of the picture stimulate. It has been the aim of the editors to produce pictures that teach, that are not merely pretty. After considerable thought and experimentation it was decided that line drawing, when reproduced in sharp black and white could best accomplish this end. In such pictures the child's attention is centered upon the informative aspects of the subject and is not distracted by the mere brilliance of color which, in color pictures, sometimes takes predominance over the information contained in the picture" (*Educational Screen*).

"BUILDING AMERICA"

The current issue of *Building America* is devoted to "Labor," and especially with two questions: What is labor? Who are America's laborers? Some attention is given to labor during colonial times and in the early 1800's. The organization of the first strong nation-wide federations of labor unions, the railroad brotherhoods, the Knights of Labor, and finally the American Federation of Labor, are traced briefly. The series of photographs show the early struggles between unions and employers for wages, hours of work, and union recognition. Parts of the issue are devoted to the labor program of the present administration, and the main points at issue in the conflict between the CIO and the AF of L are discussed.

Address 425 West 123rd Street, New York City.

AMERICAN HISTORICAL FICTION

American History Through Fiction, by D. S. Otis and Jacques Ozanne, has recently been published by the Service Bureau for Adult Education, New York University (Adult Study Outlines, number 3. 64 pages, 50 cents). Study guides are provided for Kenneth Roberts, *Arundel*, and James Boyd, *Drums*, on the American Revolution; for Mary Johnston, *Lewis Rand*, and Meredith Nicholson, *The Cavalier of Tennessee*, on "the struggle for democracy"; for Edgar Lee Masters, *Children of the Market*

Place, and Herbert Quick, *Vandemark's Folly*, on the background of the Civil War; for Evelyn Scott, *The Wave*, and T. S. Stribling, *The Forge*, for the Civil War and reconstruction. The guides attempt to build knowledge and understanding of American history. An annotated list of reference books is appended.

NEW MAP SERIES

The New Reality Series of political and physical maps edited by Edith P. Parker of the University of Chicago is announced by the Weber Costello Company, Chicago Heights, Illinois. A new Parker Hemispheric projection has been used for the world map in the series.

RECENT MAGAZINE ARTICLES ON TEACHING THE SOCIAL STUDIES

- Aitken, W. E. M. "Geography for Grades VII and VIII," *The School* (Elementary Edition), 26:598-600, March, 1938. Practical suggestions for teachers, with respect to teaching the geography of Australia, New Zealand, and Canada.
- Aitken, W. E. M. "Social Studies for Grades V and VI," *The School* (Elementary Edition), 26:596-98, March, 1938. Practical suggestions for teachers.
- Covello, Leonard. "Neighborhood Growth Through the School," *Progressive Education*, 15:126-39, February, 1938. A community high school in underprivileged East Harlem, New York City.
- Elsen, Edna E. "Field Work in Junior and Senior High Schools," *Journal of Geography*, 37:75-77, February, 1938. Recommends that field work be carried on as an extracurricular activity in geography clubs.
- Harvey, C. C., and Dentor, Cecil F. "Use of Newspapers in Secondary Schools," *School Review*, 46:196-201, March, 1938. Pupils' reading habits and principals' policies in 44 senior high schools in 15 states.
- Heflin, Arnold P. "Audio Aids in a Visual Program," *Educational Screen*, 17:39-42, February, 1938. Advantages of sound accompaniment to films, and possibilities of school recording. Incidental reference to social studies.
- Henry, Lorne J. "Current Events," *The School* (Elementary Edition), 26:581-86, March, 1938. Specimen units for pupils on "The Race for Sea Power" and "The Independence of the Philippine Islands."
- Hile, Martha Jane. "The Use of Photographic Material in the Teaching of Geography," *Journal of Geography*, 37:55-63, February, 1938.
- Jeffreys, M. V. C. "The Value of 'Lines of Development' in Stimulating the Pupils' Initiative," *History*, 22:219-27, December, 1937. Presenting the case for organizing history courses in topical units rather than by chronological periods; an English view.
- Kickhafer, Emily R. "Flint, Michigan, Our Community Civics Laboratory," *Clearing House*, 12:334-39, February, 1938.
- "Memorandum on Illustrations in Textbooks," *History*, 22:228-33, December, 1937. A compact summary of criticisms and recommendations, based upon history textbooks used in Great Britain.

- Nixon, Robert B. "College Geography Textbooks," *School and Society*, 47:116-120, January 22, 1938. An extensive list of specific criticisms by a high school teacher.
- Park, Joe. "A Practical Social Studies Notebook," *Journal of the National Education Association*, 27:88, March, 1938. Deals primarily with seventh and eighth grades; includes specific suggestions and pictures of specimen pages.
- Phelps, Bertha. "How the Frontier Moved Westward—An Eighth-Grade History Project," *Educational Method*, 17:246-49, February, 1938.
- Pickett, Clarence E. "What Is a Community?" *Progressive Education*, 15:91-96, February, 1938. The obligations of the school in building community life in urban society.
- Pollack, Sophie. "Civic Education vs. Hippodroming," *Clearing House*, 12:360-61, February, 1938. Reports favorably four instances of participation in adult civic affairs by school pupils; by the secretary of the National Self-Government Committee.
- Pulliam, Roscoe. "How Far Shall the School Go in Teaching Social Attitudes?" *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 23:651-55, December, 1937. Says schools have the obligation to indoctrinate ideals and attitudes.
- Semple, Hugh. "3-Subject Cooperation," *Clearing House*, 12:356-57, February, 1938. Report of a ninth-grade course in Ancient Civilization involving correlation of history, English, and Latin; presented as a "compromise on integration."
- Smith, Maurice M. "Comparative Social Attitudes," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 28:681-93, December, 1937. A significant research study; showing, among other things, that the social attitudes of high school seniors correspond much more closely to their parents' attitudes than to their teachers'.
- Thomas, John B. "Consumer Buying in California Secondary Schools," *School Review*, 46:191-95, March, 1938. Replies of 196 schools on needs and present practice in consumer education.
- Wilson, Howard E., Dale, Edgar, Murra, Wilbur F., and Tryon, Rolla M. "Special Methods and Psychology of the Elementary-School Subjects: Social Studies," *Review of Educational Research*, 7:510-18, 568-71, December, 1937. Review of 69 research studies appearing between July 1, 1934 and July 1, 1937.
- Woestemeyer, Ina Fay. "The History Column," *High School Journal*, 21:59-61, February, 1938. Urges the values of utilizing source materials in teaching history; suggests some specific techniques.
- Wood, Hugh B. "Communities Develop Programs to Meet Local Needs," *Progressive Education*, 15:118-20, February, 1938. Community study and coordination in Chester, Pennsylvania, and Madison, New Jersey.

Readers are invited to send in items for "Notes and News." Items for September should be sent in by August 1.

Contributors to this issue include Julian C. Aldrich, Marjorie Dowling Brown, O. M. Dickerson, Joseph C. Driscoll, Grace Frederick, W. Kenneth Fulkerson, Howard C. Hill, Horace Kidger, Michael Levine, Wilbur F. Murra, E. Schuyler Palmer, Norman C. Perring, Myrtle Roberts, Benjamin Rosenthal, and Donnal V. Smith.

BOOK REVIEWS

History of Civilization: Earlier Ages. By James H. Robinson, James Henry Breasted, and Emma P. Smith. **History of Civilization: Our Own Age.** By Charles A. Beard, James Harvey Robinson, and Donnal V. Smith. Both Boston: Ginn, 1937. Pp. 896 and 850. \$2.20 each.

These volumes raise a very interesting question. At what point in a series of revisions do books such as these become new works and cease to be merely modifications of the original? Only one of the three distinguished historians who collaborated in the initial production of this work is still living. This is Charles A. Beard whose vigorous mind is very much in evidence in the second volume. Doubtless his advice, much enriched by his active interest in the teaching problems in this field during the past ten years, was drawn upon in the planning of both the volumes. There is evidence of the contributions of Breasted, less of Robinson. But so much has been added, and the material has been so much rearranged that it would be nearer the truth to regard the first volume as a new work. The same conclusion can be reached regarding the second volume, for, though the author is the same and some of the material as well, it has been recast and much enlarged. They should therefore be regarded as new works which present in two volumes a systematic history of the growth of our civilization from earliest times to the present.

The additions in both volumes include a much larger and clearer treatment of the arts and crafts, science and technology, social and cultural material. Much of this material is drawn from recent scholarly advance not only in history and anthropology but from the social sciences also. The arrangement of the work reflects the more recent advance in classroom procedure. The authors and editors have dis-

played amazing ingenuity in so arranging their material as to meet the needs of almost any type of procedure. Teachers who prefer the unit-mastery technique will find their want met. Those who prefer the project procedure will also find the material satisfactorily arranged. So, too, will the teacher who prefers the small units suitable even for a day by day assignment.

It would be unfair in a review as brief as this to single out minor errors of fact, or even interpretations of events capable of different treatment. There are surprisingly few of the former in a work as large as this, just enough of them to reward the diligent and precise students for their effort in discovering them. The latter occur frequently enough throughout the work to stimulate the students to deeper interest and further study.

The reviewer finds himself less happy about the arrangement of material in the last portion of the first volume. Whatever pedagogical value such arrangement may have, it seems more than lost by the misconception that must result from following it. Since history affords no better opportunity to make clear the part played by trade and commerce in the organization of society, it seems a pity to have feudalism overthrown, the national state developed, and arbitrary royal power restrained by constitutional limitations all neatly disposed of before the growth of commerce, trade, and towns is treated. The reviewer regrets, too, the inclusion of so much political detail in the last part of the first volume and the first part of the second. There is more justification for the emphasis upon this material in the second volume, since it is here that the student gains his first insight into the distinctive character of the large political organizations through which the present world operates. In contrast to most textbooks treating this period, which are de-

voted chiefly to the political, this second volume has included the scientific and technological and other cultural developments without sacrificing any of the essential political material. It deals not only with the countries of Europe but also with those of Asia and Africa. In view of this fact, it seems scarcely appropriate to express regret that the American ramifications of international politics are not more fully developed. After all the courses in American history do have the responsibility for that part of the story.

Nearly all the new material and some, not enough, of the old has been written in a way that is simple and clear yet interesting and fully informing. It is therefore readily within the reach of high school students. The illustrations are unusually well selected and well placed with reference to the text they serve. The publishers, who might have been pardoned for cutting down the illustrative material in view of the great enlargement of the text, in order to keep these books within the school text price range, have not done so. The only concession the publishers have asked, apparently, is that of somewhat thinner paper.

These two volumes place within reach of high school students a much richer store of information about the development of world society than is available in most high school textbooks. The second volume is distinguished by the attempt of the authors to convey to the students some impression of the essential interrelation of the wide variety of man's activities and therefore of the social sciences. It is intended primarily for two years' work, but those schools which prefer to devote three years to the development of world civilization will find these two volumes as satisfactory as any texts at present available. There is an extensive bibliography, on the whole well chosen with reference to both subject and student. Authors and publishers are to be congratulated upon their achievement in making available to high school students so much material so interestingly presented.

A. C. KREY

University of Minnesota

Practical Sociology. By Leslie Day Zeleny. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1937. Pp. xxi, 461. \$3.00.

This textbook, intended "to make clear to beginners the sociology dealing with the com-

mon affairs of everyday life" (p. ix), is organized in two parts and twenty-three chapters. In the first part, "Social Relations," the author surveys group relations and group actions as they impinge upon individuals and other groups—as competition, conflict, accommodation, cooperation, and assimilation. In the second part, "The Community and Its Culture," the author builds upon three types of communities. On this foundation he discusses culture, cultural change and disorganization, culture and personality, culture and social control, and cultural progress. There is a glossary of technical words and usage, a bibliography of supplementary readings as well as of other textbooks and more general volumes, and an index.

The book is written in an easy style with illustrative materials, more or less obvious to students, utilized to point up technical meanings. The outlines at the ends of chapters are intended, apparently, to serve as a check on the ability of students to grasp meanings. The wisdom of limiting supplementary readings to other textbooks may be questioned by some instructors. Intended presumably for use with students with a limited background in the social studies, this textbook will be useful with beginning courses in sociology in teachers colleges and smaller liberal arts colleges. Secondary school teachers of sociology may wish to add this title to their classroom libraries for students. Intelligent students will probably find it so simple in treatment that they can dispense with the need for instructors.

W. G. KIMMEL

Philadelphia

Economics—An Introduction to Fundamental Problems. By Augustus H. Smith. rev. ed. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938. Pp. xxxv, 544. \$1.68.

Elements of Economics. By Charles Ralph Fay and William C. Bagley, Jr. New York: Macmillan, 1938. Pp. xxvi, 548. \$1.80.

For many years textbook writers in the field of economics have been struggling to rescue this important study from its reputation as the "dismal science." Few have succeeded, however, because, as technically trained persons in the field, they usually have entered upon the task by attempting to make everyone else as technically trained as themselves. The result generally has been a volume which is hailed as

"sound," "accurate," and "scholarly" by similar technical-minded reviewers, but whose contents somehow never seem to escape from between the covers of the book. The reason is not far to seek (although writers persistently overlook it) if we remember that the secondary school is a place for general training and not a place for developing experts.

The average high school student will never become an economic technician, but he does need an introduction to the economic world in which he lives. Thus, it is refreshing to read a volume such as Augustus H. Smith's latest revised edition, for the author obviously has approached his task from the latter point of view. It is indeed a text written by a man who actually works with high school students and who knows what manner of people they are.

The style, content, and teaching aids in this book all show an understanding of the secondary school student's mind and how to attract it to the study at hand. The book does not overlook the importance of the traditional ABC's of economics, such as the factors in production and consumption, business enterprise, marketing, money, banking, credit, interest, wages, and rent; but it successfully weaves these basic threads around the pattern of some of our vital modern problems, such as the nature of our economic society, the business cycle, profits, monopolies, labor organizations and methods, industrial problems, public finance, international trade, and proposed economic reform. And most important of all, it presents these features of the present economic world in non-technical language that pupils can readily understand.

Teaching aids in the form of study aims, vocabulary exercises, discussion questions, collateral reading, and selected references combined with a series of thirty well related and attractively presented "Problems," distributed advantageously throughout the book, make the volume a highly effective teaching instrument.

The second book, like the first, is a revision of a well known high school text. This particular revision finds William C. Bagley, Jr., joining Charles Ralph Fay in the production of a book that is an improvement over the former Fay text, but one which still clings to a highly academic approach to the study in question. The book is well organized and takes up many

of the same topics as the Smith volume, but it lacks the student appeal that the former possesses. The language is rather heavy and ponderous, and the style geared to mesh best with the minds of those relatively few high school students who are interested in economics, as such. The book would probably be more effective on a junior college level than it would be in the senior high school.

F. MELVYN LAWSON

Sacramento Senior High School
Sacramento, California

We, The Citizens. By J. Louis Stockton and Maurice Beckenstein and Ed by Maxwell Frank. New York: College Entrance Book, 1937. Pp. xii, 530. \$1.26.

The authors call this "a functional study of government," and the book does emphasize the functions of government and seems well calculated to develop a good civic attitude.

The general topics included in the syllabus for civics in the New York schools are treated in a logical manner: first an introduction showing the importance of the topic; the work of federal, state, and local agencies dealing with the topic; suggestions for improvement and the duties of citizens. Each chapter closes with excellent questions and suggested "pupil activities." The "Foreword to Teachers" has good suggestions on methods of teaching civics, the use of bulletin boards, current events, notebooks, and special reports.

A teacher and citizen must of course in various details disagree with both fact and opinion in a volume like this, and occasionally some change has taken place since the book was written, as for instance the adoption in 1937 of the four-year term for the New York governorship. Yet on the whole, the book is up to date, taking account of the new city charter and the recent state and federal social security laws. There are many excellent illustrations, including good pictographs and charts. The chapter on finance has good tables, showing the per cent of the total budget allotted to each government service and the number of employees in each department. The matter of bond issues, sinking fund, and tax rate are very clearly explained. The book is printed in good, large, clear type and there is a good index.

FRED C. WHITE

Morris High School
New York City

Philippine Social Life and Progress. By Conrado Benitez, Ramona S. Tirona, and Leon Gatmaytan. Boston: Ginn, 1937. Pp. x, 551. \$1.80.

The change in the political status of the Philippine Islands in November, 1935, when the commonwealth government went into effect, called for a curriculum reform affecting the program of the social studies. The national council for education created by President Manuel Quezon for the purpose of studying commonwealth problems agreed on a policy of adapting the educational system to the specific needs of the new nation. Recommendations were made for "a systematic and continuous plan of graded education on Filipino patriotism in all public and private schools, colleges and universities." In August, 1937, the bureau of education issued to the field "A Course of Study in Philippine Social Life" for secondary schools. The attempts to teach such a course were rather desultory, until a text could be obtained with materials amassed and condensed for such a purpose.

A Filipino historian and educator of prominence, Conrado Benitez, dean of the College of Administration, University of the Philippines, with the aid of Ramona S. Tirona, dean of the College of Education, Philippine Women's University, and Leon Gatmaytan, principal of the Nueva Ecija High School set about organizing material for such a text as was needed. It has been adopted by the textbook board and is now in use.

Philippine Social Life and Progress emphasizes the traditions and customs of the Filipino people. The controlling themes are nationalism, character training, wise use of leisure, and international cooperation. Part I deals with the social heritage of the Filipinos and the progress they have made in developing their human resources. Part II presents the home, the school, the community, and the nation as interrelated agencies which control men in their dealing with one another. Social control as affected by the early Malaysians, the Spaniards, and the Americans presents an interesting subject for investigation and study. Economic and social conditions and the desirability of giving greater emphasis to vocational education are discussed in relation to an enduring national existence. Part III presents a survey of individual and social ideals of conduct as fac-

tors of social progress. A brief discussion of ethics terminates with a summary of ideals which have been incorporated or implied in the constitution of the Philippine commonwealth.

The text contains the type of material adapted to the experience, interests, and abilities of Filipino students. It would serve the purpose of a profitable reference in school libraries of the United States for courses in introductory sociology, United States history, and oriental history. At the end of each chapter references are cited that suggest an abundance of collateral reading. The treatment is primarily topical, and the organization lends itself to the unit method of instruction as developed in the bureau of education course of study. There is an abundance of illustrative material which correlates closely with present Philippines. Although there are numerous quotations from original sources, such as reports of the collector of customs, bulletins of the bureau of commerce and industry, the constitution of the commonwealth, there are no references made to the fifty-five volume work of Emma Helen Blair and James Alexander Robertson, *The Philippine Islands* (Cleveland: Clark, 1903-09), which is the most interesting and dependable source of interpreting social conditions during the Spanish regime. "Checks and Activities" found at the end of each chapter are useful to teachers and students who desire suggestions and guidance. The assignments "additional" and "optional" might be combined and condensed for more unity.

The book is an experiment provided for the schools of a nation that is undergoing a critical period of transition. As such, it is a vital contribution to the social sciences and will be instrumental in developing among Filipinos a national consciousness of their own ideals and government.

MARION HILLIARD CRUMP

Zamboanga Normal School
Philippine Islands

How to Use Pictorial Statistics. By Rudolf Modley with chapter on symbols by Franz C. Hess. New York: Harper, 1937. Pp. xiii, 170. \$3.00.

During the past five years in the United States there has developed a good deal of interest in the Vienna type of pictorial statistics. The distinctive features of this method are the sim-

plicity and directness of the symbols. In a sense the Vienna method substitutes rows of standardized symbols for the bars of typical bar graphs. Sometimes the pictorial bars are laid over a map and in other cases they are supplemented by marginal explanatory sketches. Extensive use has been made of this pictorial method in recent federal reports dealing with economic security, natural resources, and other national problems.

The sixteen chapters of the book deal with the following topics: how one chart was made, reasons for using pictorial statistics, the grammar of the picture language, the vocabulary—symbols, symbol arrangement, color and shading, title and legend, explanatory pictures, sources of statistics, maps, pictorial diagrams, production and reproduction, history of the method, other graphic methods, pictorial statistics in schools, and the improvement of exhibits and museums by pictorial methods. Taken together these chapters comprise an A-to-Z handbook on a simplified presentation of statistical data. The format of the book is striking in several particulars. The large type used in the text makes for ease in reading. The chapter headings, page numbers, and arrangement of type have a modernistic touch. The liberal sprinkling of charts and graphs adequately illustrate "the do's and the don'ts" of Modley's interpretation of the Vienna technic.

The Vienna method of pictorial presentation was developed by Otto Neurath and his staff at the Social Museum in Vienna. Dr Neurath looks upon his pictorial method as a possible international language. Rudolf Modley, who before 1930 was one of Neurath's assistants, believes that before the international aspects are achieved there will be a period of experimental use in various countries. His *How to Use Pictorial Statistics* represents the result of about eight years of application of the Vienna technic to American conditions.

One of the things which makes pictographs particularly appealing to adults is that we become familiar with objects or pictures of objects almost from the day we open our eyes. During the first few months of babyhood we learn "to read" pictures. Interest in and understanding of pictures has a long start over the reading of printed or written words. This fact is a fundamental reason why we get so much satisfaction from "reading" by means of illus-

trations. No doubt it explains the reason for extensive use of pictures in modern advertising; the strong appeal of colorful posters; the sale of millions of copies of pictorial magazines; and similar phenomena of American life.

There are some who contend that pictorial statistics are valuable merely for purposes of simplification. To say that people are so child-like that they must have pictures in order to grasp meanings is a superficial effort to discount the role of graphic presentation. Objective and pictorial representations are among our early teachers; the history of mankind shows that pictorial representations preceded and influenced the development of written language. Quite early in life we seem to acquire a racial urge to think in terms of pictures and symbols. This book shows us how we may capitalize upon this for instructional as well as general professional purposes.

FRANK W. HUBBARD

National Education Association

Writing Past and Present, The Story of Writing and Writing Tools. By Carroll Gard. New York: A. N. Palmer Company, 1937. Pp. 74. \$1.00.

This brief treatment of the history of handwriting will add enrichment and meaning to a subject that has long been taught in the most routine manner in our schools. It will undoubtedly enjoy a wide circulation if it follows in the footsteps of the red-covered penmanship manuals with which most of us struggled in our youth.

Brief, well illustrated chapters treat the following topics: primitive writing; Mexican picture writing; Chinese, Egyptian, and cuneiform writing; Hittite hieroglyphics and other pre-Phoenician scripts; Phoenician, Greek, and Roman alphabets; writing in the middle ages; the invention of printing; handwriting in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries; stories of the steel pen, ink, paper, pencil, fountain pen and typewriter; handwriting as an art, and the story of modern handwriting. Each chapter is followed by "Problems" and "Activities" which leads the reviewer to infer that the book is intended as a textbook for progressive schools. No footnotes or bibliography are included. The author acknowledges indebtedness to William A. Mason's *A History of the Art of Writing* (New York: Macmillan, 1920) for

many of the illustrations, and the first part of the narrative contains little that is not better told in Mason or in Edward Clodd's *The Story of the Alphabet* (New York: Appleton, 1900).

The narrative assumes a continuous progress in the art of writing until "Handwriting becomes an Art" in the modern period, a thesis with which many scholars will disagree. Other scholars, especially palaeographers and philologists, will not like the author's intolerant attitude toward the handwriting of others, as expressed in the following statement: "The strangest present-day alphabet in general appearance is the Arabic, which looks like nothing so much as shorthand notes. The much abbreviated forms are distinctly lacking in the diversity of form which characterizes the letters of our alphabet" (p. 1). The Arabic forms are descended from the same ancestral forms as our alphabet (Phoenician), and they are not lacking in "diversity of form" to the eyes of an Arab. And it might be added that the Arabic forms are much less subject to degeneracy in the daily use of the average man than are our letters. The author comments upon the illegibility of the sixteenth century handwriting of John Knox (p. 37) and adds that "it has been read by scholars." Was Knox's handwriting illegible to the modern observer because he was not familiar with sixteenth century forms? Why was it not illegible to the scholar? Perhaps the scholar was familiar with the variations of form of the "chancery," "exchequer," "law courts," "secretary," "bastard-secretary," and "Roman" or "italic" styles of writing of that period. May it not be possible that the scholar possessed a historical understanding entirely free from the intolerance of the modern observer? A sixteenth century man of letters wrote several hands; he could indite a formal epistle in a "fair" hand (perhaps *italic*) to his patron, and turn to another sheet to gossip with a friend in "secretary."

The author appears to be most at home with the materials of the modern period in the United States. Some excellent facsimiles of pages from American copybooks are included in the book. Scholars might like to question the omission of early copybooks, such as Giovanni Antonio Tagliente's block-printed copybook which was first issued in 1524 and by 1565 had enjoyed eighteen editions, or Urbanus Wyss' *Libellus valde doctus*, books which ex-

erted tremendous influences in their day; and of more of the seventeenth century copybooks which helped to bring about the adoption of what Shakespeare called "sweet Roman hand," the forms of which survive in our modern cursive script.

Additional interest could have been given to the narrative by telling more about early writing masters, such as Peter Bales. Bales won a golden pen worth twenty pounds sterling at a public writing contest in London in 1595. Imagine Bales' *Sign of the Gold Pen* as it moved upwards socially from place to place until his competitors were moved to compose verses that likened it to the "rapid hand" of its master. Bales assisted Queen Elizabeth's minister, Sir Francis Walsingham, by forging legal documents for political purposes. Much interesting narrative could have been added to the story of the versatile Edward Cocker who cut plates for more than a score of copybooks, each of which was issued in many editions; who was far too successful to be popular; and who was seriously reprimanded by his fellow-craftsmen for the extravagance of publishing one of his copybooks from silver plates. Surely, these stories of the old writing masters are as vital and as interesting as that of the late A. N. Palmer to whose biography three pages of this short manual are devoted.

HARRIET H. SHOEN

New York City

A College Curriculum Based on Functional Needs of Students. By Kenneth L. Heaton and G. Robert Koopman. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1936. Pp. 157. \$2.00.

This book is a distinct contribution to the literature on curriculum revision. Of the three customary approaches to this continuous problem, the philosophical, the scissors-and-paste eclectic, and the functional, the authors stress the latter. The philosophical approach however has not been overlooked, as the writers had the generous help of two state superintendents of schools in Michigan, several professors in the universities of Chicago, Michigan, and Ohio State, as well as the president and members of the faculty of the Michigan Central State Normal College, where the experiment took place. The book is a progress report of the adjustment of the first two years of a typical teachers college curriculum, in order to meet the func-

tional needs of students better and to prepare them for professional instruction. Its eight chapters are entitled: Use of a College as a Demonstration-Research Center, Curriculum Problems of the College, The Functional Needs of Students, Characteristics of the Major Fields of Learning, Methods and Materials of Instruction, Adjustment of Administration to the Re-organized Program, Development of a Program of Evaluation Activities, and Organization of the Faculty for Continuous Curriculum Development.

Secondary and college administrators should find the tentative list of freshmen and sophomore functional needs in the social, personal, and family fields useful in evaluating their programs. The fact that this inventory, which is presented in the appendix, includes a consideration of such fields as planning for marriage and economic security indicates that study recognizes current student problems. The authors illustrate how some of the more distinctive contributions that America has made to elementary education are beginning to be applied to higher education. Further reports on the experiment will be awaited eagerly to see how this kind of program effects the professional success of graduates.

HARRY R. MEYERING

Teachers College
Kansas City, Missouri

What About Survey Courses? By B. Lamar Johnson. New York: Holt, 1937. Pp. xi, 377. \$2.85.

Professor Johnson and his collaborators have succeeded in producing a very considerable unity from a variety of materials. The unity achieved is one of purpose and not of procedure, for it appears that, while both modern man and his education have plenty of problems, programs, and policies, they are deficient in principles. Yet these essays, largely descriptive in nature and reporting programs of some twenty of the different institutions that have adopted survey courses, do have similar organizing principles. The general aim of these institutions seems to be to do more effectively what the liberal arts colleges thought they were doing. They accept the idea that the function of the college is to make available a truly modern knowledge about society. Their aim is not adjustment merely, but understanding or ad-

justment through understanding. The most marked deviation from this position is the program reported by Kenneth L. Heaton, of the Teachers College at Mt Pleasant, Michigan. That program is described as being both experimental and functional in essence, and as aiming "to prepare the student for life in all areas of relationship."

Thus at New College, Columbia, the aim is that of directing the "student in his study of recent social trends by pointing out their significance," and in natural science the objective is "to understand how discoveries in science have influenced the thinking and philosophy of mankind." But most noteworthy, perhaps, is the retention of the notion that the wide background of courses is justified in developing a social viewpoint upon which the wider implications of teaching profession can be interpreted (p. 175). Similarly at Northwestern where Baker Brownell has taught courses in contemporary thought since 1923 and has had fifteen hundred dollars a year for obtaining outside professional assistance, the course is described as an attempt to aid "the student to find an adequate relationship between himself and the world in a modern Weltanschauung." At Chicago H. D. Gideonse protests against calling his program a survey course, since in reality the present social science program is more intensive, more selective, and more advanced than that previously offered. He also notes the tendency of students to satisfy requirements by the adoption of a verbal "lingo." Still more important is his statement, based on this experience at Chicago, that "the major sin of American education lies in its tendency to exaggerate administrative detail" and to overlook fundamental teaching problems and the conditions surrounding true teaching effectiveness. At Florida a comprehensive program under the name "general college" is under way (reported by W. J. Matherly and Rollin S. Atwood in *Social Education*, January, 1938), and it has yielded a most striking thing. "This system of [comprehensive] examining has eliminated the personal equation in grading" (p. 106).

Professor Johnson has contributed to this volume an introductory essay on the development of the survey courses, and he anticipates an extension of them to the senior college. The objection to the survey course is that unifica-

tion is sought before there is much to unify, that is, in the student's mind. And yet on the senior level integration runs counter to the aim of differentiation. However, the survey course is but one attempt of modern man to meet the need of a truly synthetic outlook!

GUY V. PRICE

Teachers College
Kansas City, Missouri

A History of Militarism: Romance and Reality of a Profession. By Alfred Vagts. New York: Norton, 1937. Pp. ix, 510. \$4.75.

This is one of the most timely books that has appeared in years. Even to those who have followed military history somewhat carefully and are acquainted with the relations of it to social development the book is a revelation. Into his story of the stupidity of the militarists and, one may well add, of the military the author packs so much detailed evidence of his assertions that he overwhelmingly convinces the reader.

Dr Vagts introduces his subject by distinguishing between militarism and the military way: "Since modern armies are not so constantly engaged in combat as were the ancient armies, they are more liable to forget their true purpose, war, and the maintenance of the state to which they belong. Becoming narcissistic, they dream that they exist for themselves alone. An army so built that it serves military men, not war, is militaristic; so is everything in an army which is not preparation for fighting, but merely exists for diversion or to satisfy peacetime whims like the long-anachronistic cavalry today" (p. 13). "Militarism . . . covers every system of thinking and valuing and every complex of feelings which rank military institutions and ways above the ways of civilian life, carrying military mentality and modes of acting and decision into the military sphere" (p. 15). Throughout the book the author shows how easily and eagerly the military men have extended the military way into militarism and how difficult and even impossible it has been to prevent them from doing so. It is manifest that in order to handle the history of militarism the author must reject "the narrow specialist concept of military history" (p. 28). He uses the "socio-economic" approach, integrating "the development of armies and warfare with that of the state, business and finance, society

as a whole and its ideas" (p. 28) for, he maintains, "each stage of social progress or regress has produced military institutions in conformity with its needs and ideas, its culture as well as its economics" (p. 35). Starting with the period of the disappearance of the feudal warrior, he follows in turn the development of the mercenary standing army and the mass army and concludes with an analysis of the latter in the totalitarian state. He devotes two-thirds of his space to the discussion of militarism since the changes connected with the wars of German unification. Most of his material is derived from French and Prusso-German history, but British, American, Austrian, Russian, Japanese, and other sources are turned to account. Scarcely an important militarist in any country, either of military or civilian life, has been omitted. The author discusses military theory and practice, army social ideals and relations, relations of high officers with government and politics, the relation of army and navy, the attitude of high officers toward peace-making.

The content of the volume is far too varied for detailed summary, and only a few general points can be given. First, the military life has been and in large part still remains the stronghold of aristocratic and agrarian interests. Second, the military life develops, even in those military men who come from the ranks, a conservative or reactionary way of thinking and acting, and military generals, including British, French, and American ones, usually despise the politician and parliamentary government and invariably oppose labor or other civilian co-operative movements in any form. Third, officers have been blatantly stupid about everything except their personal or professional interests. Instead of keeping abreast of the technical and scientific improvements useful for fighting, they have preferred the simpler traditional method of fighting man to man. The result has been a terrific waste of human life. Fourth, the civilian bourgeoisie has been and is largely responsible for the development of militarism. Considering itself expert in the economic aspects of organized life, it has devoted itself to these and left military affairs to the persons who it thought were experts in that field. It has tended to despise the military as an unproductive burden and has neither formulated nor followed an integrated, consistent policy of national defense.

The author's constant admonition is that, since war affects vitally the entire life of a nation, the problems of defense should be carefully studied by civilians as well as by the military. The book can not fail to convince the old-fashioned liberal of the justice of this statement. It will jar him out of any complacency about this phase of public life.

EUGENE N. ANDERSON

American University

A History of the Business Man. By Miriam Beard. New York: Macmillan, 1938. Pp. vi, 779. \$5.00.

Reviewers have received this volume with flourishes of acclaim and greeted it as "real history," as "an extremely important book," and "as sprightly as it is bulky." They have heaped journalistic praise upon it with literary abandon.

In part, their encomiums are warranted, but from another angle their judgments are sadly warped. The book is in essence a compilation of thumbnail biographies of business men from the traders of Babylonia to the finance capitalists of contemporary Europe and America. These sketches are uniformly good and bring together information that could be found at best only in encyclopedias or in a multitude of monographs. But where the author falls down is in her attempts to interpret great movements or events upon the basis of her rather flimsy biographical data.

Consider for a moment her interpretation of the French Revolution. She gives the impression that the uprising was in large part one of the peasants and proletarians against business men; and she cites in confirmation of this position the number of bankers who were guillotined during the terror. She gives practically no indication of what is now patently agreed upon, that the Revolution was essentially a bourgeois revolution against nobles and clergy for the acquisition of political power. Or consider her treatment of the "industrial revolution" in France. Is its slowness to be attributed to a state of mind against innovations? The most elementary study of the matter would indicate not.

On the other hand, the thumbnail biographies are good, and occasionally downright brilliant. No one could deny the excellence of her Crassus, her Fugger, her Ouvrard, her

Rothschilds, or her "American hustler."

It is to be lamented that her doctrine that "there is a remarkable relationship between Idea and Interest" was not applied to history with a fuller knowledge of the facts.

SHEPARD B. CLOUGH

Columbia University

We Americans: A Study of Cleavage in an American City. By Elen L. Anderson. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press, 1937. Pp. xii, 286. \$3.00.

Since the cessation of large scale immigration into the United States, American sociology has on the whole diverted its attention from the problems of Americanization which were so important in the early twenties. During the last few years, there have, however, appeared two noteworthy studies of the adjustment of foreigners in American urban communities. One of these, Caroline F. Ware's *Greenwich Village*, dealt with a section of New York City. The other one, which is here under review, deals with Burlington, Vermont, and persons interested in a factual stocktaking of how far the melting pot process has gone will do well to examine it.

The author is obviously alarmed by the fact that the ideal of "a united people," or "a unified citizenry," characterized by "the absence of a sense of difference," has not been realized. Her aim, accordingly, is to study for one small American city the obstacles in the path of this "unification." She enumerates the forms that cleavage takes: residential separateness, occupational stratification, religious differences, a dual educational system, the reciprocal exclusiveness of classes, religions and nationalities in associational and recreational activity and ethnic and religious endogamy (inter- and intra-class marriage is not treated). In next to the last chapter she observes the effect of these cleavages in the atomization of activity in the face of major communal concerns such as political control and relief. As an inventory of the differential participation of religious and ethnic groups in economic, "social," political, and educational activities, the book is a rich source of information and a model of exposition.

But for an understanding of why unification has not taken place we need first a clear conception of what unification can mean in the

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different spheres of life, and in what sense and under what conditions it is possible. There is required, furthermore, an analysis from a structural point of view of how the cleavages operate in the maintenance of the social order and what and whose values they satisfy. The author does not provide this, nor can her citation of the verbally expressed attitudes be accepted as a substitute. (This inadequacy is reflected in her tendency to offer very cloudy, idealistic explanations of the motivation of some of her respondents.) Her analysis of "The Working World" is not a structural analysis of occupations but rather an enumeration of the ethnic and religious characteristics of the practitioners of the various occupational classes, and consequently the processes of economic control escape her attention except in one or two incidental remarks. This static, enumerative method is manifest again in the otherwise excellent section on "Social Life," where the interaction between the various groups, competition, striving for admission, exclusion and the diffusion of norms are left out. As over against these failings, it is necessary to emphasize the considerable number of penetrating insights into the subjective side of social mobility and especially into the relation between the degree of looseness or tightness of cohesion of the group in which the individual starts and the chances of his developing a "climbing" attitude. There are also some excellent remarks on the way in which religious and ethnic loyalties are in certain cases giving way to class loyalties, based on a recognition of identity of life situations.

The dynamics of differentiation are likewise slighted, even though there are chapters on religion and education, where differences are merely enumerated rather than examined for their functional significance. The family is not dealt with at all except as the locus of intermarriage. As an agency for setting the life ideals of the coming generation in cooperation or in conflict with other groups in the community, it is practically disregarded. The social position of the offspring of intermarriages—a subject of the greatest bearing for her problem—receives only passing mention.

Inventories are only one stage in the sociological study of how a community operates. They must be preceded by a rigorous definition of the problem and followed by an equally

rigorous analysis of the data. The book's failure to pay sufficient attention to these steps reduces the value of what is nevertheless a most instructive work on accomplishment and failure of social democracy in one American city.

EDWARD A. SHILS

Teachers College
Columbia University

Recent Trends in Rural Planning. By William E. Cole and Hugh P. Crowe. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1937. Pp. xv, 579. \$3.50.

This is a new book in a new field. As such it has both the values and limitations of a pioneer work. The authors of this volume have undertaken the tremendous and difficult task of covering the problems of "planning" for the diverse social institutions of rural America. It is a tremendous task, because it includes such a broad field of human endeavor. It is difficult, owing to the constant temptation to indulge in meaningless generalities, on the one hand, or to become entangled in minute details applicable to only a few specific situations, on the other. The maintenance of a course that analyzes the situation in which planning is needed, presents general principles which make pertinent distinctions, clarifies the implications of possible alternative procedures, and illustrates the principles and procedures involved, is difficult indeed. Let us consider the authors' success in maintaining such a course.

The authors state the purpose of the book as "a compilation of various attempts which have been made to attack systematically, certain rural problems and to plan for a rural life." Its chief value is just this. It is a compendium of attempts, broad and narrow, well organized and sporadic, fruitful and less successful to "plan" for the future. As a compendium of developments in the field of rural planning listed under such chapter headings as the economic bases of planning, human resources and planning, rural planning for effective social welfare, prevention and treatment of rural delinquency, crime control, health, education, libraries, recreation, church, government and electrification, this book should provide valuable source material, both now and as the literature in this field develops. The very fact that such instances have been collected and classified implies a point of view on the part of

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the authors. The limited number of examples available and their often inadequate approaches and procedures inevitably place certain limitations on their value.

However, in addition to such limitations the reader is left with a feeling of incompleteness. He wishes that the authors had put more of themselves into the volume, that there had been more critical analysis of the developments reported to show what brought them about and why they developed as they did. In the exhaustive study required for the preparation of such a volume the authors must have developed certain guiding principles and bases for rural planning which, if presented, would synthesize the volume and stimulate thought. Also, more attention might have been given to definition of the concepts used. The authors begin the first chapter, for example, with the sentence, "To the unmeticulous mind, 'rural' means the smell of freshly mown meadows, herds of cattle, fields of crops, quietude, a country store, a rural church at the crossroads," and he then proceeds to show how certain factors modify such a loose concept. There is, however, no attempt to define more clearly "rural," and the reader is left with no clear understanding of the concept upon which the book is based.

Greater clarity is found, however, in other parts of the book. In the chapter on rural education, for example, two major problems are presented; "accessibility" and "adequacy," and the "bipolar aims" of development of the individual and development of the social order are analyzed. Rural education is then defined as "those phases of education which make use of rural subject matter." This provides a focus for consideration of "planning," even though it seems somewhat inadequate, particularly in view of the fact that the next paragraphs treat as problems of rural education the smallness of rural schools, teachers' low salaries, poorly trained teachers, and similar problems which can hardly be considered within the scope of the definition. In the treatment of these problems, again, one wishes the analysis might be somewhat clearer. In considering the administrative structure of public education there seems to be a general advocacy of the "county unit," without much indication of what this means, in view of the fact that counties are so diverse in size, and no recognition of the dis-

tinction between administrative and attendance units. Likewise in considering the functions of the state education department there seems not to be a recognition of the distinction between compulsion or state control, in which the state mandates uniform practice and state leadership or coordination, in which strong local units administer an adequate educational program but coordinate their activities through the influence of strong state leadership.

If used primarily as a pioneer work that presents the fortuitous developments available at the time of writing, this volume provides a wide variety of material useful for the stimulation of thought and the further analysis of the field.

FRANK W. CYR

Teachers College
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Occupational Mobility in an American Community. By Percy Erwin Davidson and H. Dewey Anderson. Stanford Univ., California: Stanford Univ. Press, 1937. Pp. vii, 203. \$3.25.

Social scientists and educators are continually on the alert for data regarding the movement of workers. In this volume they will find real meat. The authors, on the faculty of Stanford University, state that "the primary concern of the study is to discover the amount and kind of occupational movement that is taking place in a community of workers and to relate it as far as possible to factors indicative of social-economic status, such as schooling, income, number of dependents, and occupational status of father" (p. 161). A single community, San Jose, California, served as the laboratory for three years. This study is based on the occupational life histories of 1242 males (7 per cent of the total male population) in 314 occupations, classified according to the Edwards scale: professional, proprietors, clerks, skilled, semi-skilled, and unskilled workers.

The authors weave a fascinating social pattern. The "occupational inheritance" shows the relation between father and son. "Three-fourths of proprietors' fathers were proprietors, forty per cent of the skilled sons had skilled fathers, and forty per cent of the unskilled sons came from unskilled fathers. Not more than ten per cent of the respondents on the three other levels were in the same category

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with their fathers" (p. 163). The number and duration of occupations is followed out—the mean number of such occupations being 3.6 and the average duration in each occupation six years. The book traces the vertical movement of individual workers up and down the occupational scale—33 per cent of the moves were upward and 23 per cent were downward. The geographical migrations and certain social-economic factors are also given, and the design emerges as a series of "career patterns" uniquely illustrated. The volume is copiously illustrated with charts and graphs and well summarized in the last chapter. The role of schooling is particularly notable for educators. There are a number of provocative assumptions. Two seem to stand out. "These several analyses of the data suggest that amount of schooling is related to, but probably not determinative of, ultimate occupational status" (p. 174). "With increased schooling on all occupational levels, there will inevitably come a time when American people must divorce to some extent personal culture and occupational status. Workers may well be satisfied to possess a higher level of enlightenment without expecting it to yield a definite increase in occupational status and income. In the last analysis, this is the hope of a 'cultural democracy.' But, obviously, this ideal must be associated on all occupational levels with sufficient income to insure an acceptable material standard of living" (p. 176).

The book will not be easy reading for the average teacher of social studies, but it should be on the required list of all thoughtful teachers.

ROY N. ANDERSON

Teachers College
Columbia University

The Plough and the Sword. By Carl T. Schmidt. New York: Columbia Univ. Press, 1938. Pp. vii, 197. \$2.50.

Ever since the Fascist march on Rome back in 1922 students have been trying to determine who got the dirty end of the stick. Professor Salvemini endeavored to resolve the problem by contending that at first labor got it in the neck, and then capital. Now Carl Schmidt, along with most socialistically inclined anti-fascists, comes to prove that the lower classes are the ones to suffer most, and that the peas-

ants were the hardest hit of all. His position is, therefore, analogous to the one taken by Ignazio Silone in *Fontamara* and *Bread and Wine*. Mr Schmidt goes into great detail to show that food consumption in Italy has declined, that peasant incomes have fallen, and that Fascist agrarian policies—the battle of wheat, land reclamation, and landholding laws—have worked to the detriment of the little fellow and to the benefit of the big. Space does not permit a detailed criticism of these points, but certain general observation may be made.

It is true that Fascism served to preserve private capitalism in Italy and hence may be said to have worked in the favor of capitalists. Yet, as it has evolved, it has curbed private initiative with a harsh hand and has taxed capitalists heavily, particularly in the last six months. This point the author ignores, as he ignores almost every measure against capitalists. Furthermore, it should be remembered that Italy, along with every other capitalist nation, has been in the throes of a serious depression. Is it, therefore, helpful for a clear understanding of Fascism to attribute declining statistical curves almost exclusively to a political regime? And if it were admitted that it is, do all of these curves tell an accurate story? In a country where so much garden truck is raised for home consumption, can one tell much from market figure on available quantities of food?

The points upon which insistence is made, therefore, are (1) that both sides of the story would provide a more convincing picture, and (2) that much of the unfavorable data can be attributed primarily to a world depression, and to Fascism only because it helped to preserve an economic system which engenders crises.

SHEPARD B. CLOUGH

In 1937. By Alvin C. Eurich and Elmo C. Wilson. New York: Holt, 1938. Pp. x, 523. \$2.00.

This is a successor and companion volume to *In 1936*, and, like its predecessor, it attempts to describe the major and significant trends of the year just finished. The volume is divided into three parts and twenty-two chapters. Part I, devoted to the "National Scene," covers approximately 200 pages; Part II, the "International Scene," is about the same length; while

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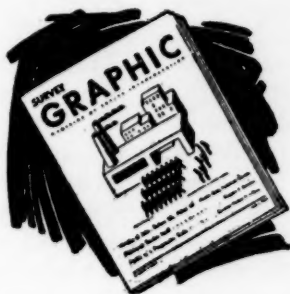
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Part III, "Literature and the Arts," contains about 70 pages. Two chapters on miscellaneous topics are added at the end. The principal authors have taken care of the first two parts, while five other specialists have either written or assumed responsibility for Part III.

Like its predecessor, *In 1936*, this volume depends for its information on the newspapers and on the leading news and interpretative weeklies. The style, a direct imitation of *Time*, is sprightly, and in general the summarization of the news is excellent. By providing a brief background in many instances, as in the story of China, the value of the book is greatly increased. The illustrations, cartoons, and charts are among the best produced during the year. On the whole the authors have succeeded better in their second attempt than in their first.

On such a project certain general remarks can be made. Since the volume was published by the third week in January, it must have gone to press immediately after the close of 1937. Just as the dailies cover the immediate news and the weeklies the news of the week, so this volume is a sort of yearly newspaper. As such, some of its problems are obvious enough. Probably no two persons, for example, would agree on the relative importance of news items, and we are not informed by the authors as to how they determined this point—whether by their own views or the space allotted in the press. Another factor that disturbs the reader is the dependability of this kind of work. Obviously a yearly newspaper should have more perspective and more accuracy than a daily, but if the yearly depends on the dailies we have not made much advance. The bias and inaccuracy (intentional or unintentional) of the daily and weekly press are notorious. What independent investigations have the authors made?

These questions are asked, not because the reviewer has detected any bias but simply to make clear the transitory nature of this kind of writing. They are asked also because it is assumed that the chief market for such a book will be high school and college libraries. In spite of the fact that there is unevenness in treatment, as there inevitably must be with a number of collaborators, that there are omissions which individual readers will note, and that there are facts and interpretations which may not stand against the research of subse-

quent historians, the volume occupies a distinct place of value for both students and the general public. It stands midway between the newspapers and magazines on the one hand and the annual supplements of the encyclopedias on the other. It is more connected than either and more interpretative than the encyclopedia accounts. Students of current events, particularly the immature, will find in it real aid in helping them clarify the happenings of an extremely complex world.

H. U. FAULKNER

Smith College

Journalist's Wife. By Lilian T. Mowrer. New York: William Morrow, 1937. Pp. 414. \$3.50.

Lilian T. Mowrer is the English wife of Edgar Ansel Mowrer, an American and at present Paris correspondent for the *Daily News* of Chicago. During the World War, when Edgar Mowrer was appointed correspondent in Rome, they were married. In this book they feel the pinch of want and the dangers of air raids in Venice the autumn of 1917 and live through a sit down strike in Milan after the war. Descriptions of the post-war conferences at San Remo and Genoa give impressions of important leaders. A trip to Albania affords opportunity to contrast conditions there with the return fifteen years later, when all the women are unveiled by a royal decree.

After the "March on Rome" the Mowrers find Italy quite changed and welcome a transfer to Germany. There with a new member of the family, Diana Jane, Mrs Mowrer has difficulty again with language and servants and decides that German servants need affection but expect to be ordered around while Italian servants need compliments. Interesting intellectual groups, plays and players in republican Germany, together with a house shared with Dorothy Thompson, provide a fascinating background for the Mowrers in Berlin. Mrs Mowrer feels no antagonism to Germany until she attends a Nazi meeting and hears Hitler speak. Her husband's remark to her is revealing: "For heaven's sake, don't look like that, remember we are sitting on the platform." When her husband is elected president of the Foreign Press in 1933 the government is hostile and suggests that he resign, but the Foreign Press refuses the resignation. In the same year he receives the Pulitzer Prize to the

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best correspondent abroad, and the *Daily News* decides to send him to Tokyo. A cablegram commands him to leave immediately, as the German government will not guarantee his physical safety.

The Mowrers return to America, and as the first expelled journalist Mr Mowrer gives a number of lectures. Their silver and linen are on the way to Tokyo, when they are sent to Paris. They see the Saar plebiscite, and Mr Mowrer spends three weeks in Madrid. Two months in Russia covers the adoption of the new Soviet constitution. Then they are back to France, where, amid the many evidences of governmental changes and the consequences, the book ends.

Anyone interested in social history will find many contrasts and comparisons of people in different countries of Europe and a wealth of material concerning people in public life. This is entirely Mrs Mowrer's story, and, though it is not documented, she has been quite accurate in her sequence of events.

ETHEL JANE POWELL

State Teachers College
Millersville, Pennsylvania

Foods America Gave the World. By A. Hyatt Verrill. Appendices in collaboration with Otis W. Barrett. Boston: Page, 1937. Pp. xvi, 289. \$3.00.

Corn, potatoes, sweet potatoes, chocolate, pumpkins, beans, peanuts, pineapples, strawberries, blackberries, raspberries, a variety of nuts, the turkey—these and a great many more, listed in the appendices if not discussed in the text, are among the foods America gave the world. Not just the United States or North America, however; Mr Verrill often finds the earliest record of the foods whose story he tells in the art or the tombs of Peru. Teachers of geography and of social history—not to mention home-making and science—should find the volume useful. The constant reference to Central and South America should serve as a corrective for our provincial interpretation of "American" history. The book is readable in spite of an exasperating amount of repetition of ideas and phrases.

E. M. H.

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